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Teacher Supervision/Evaluation in the Small (Level III) Schools of North Dakota: A Survey of Teachers, Administrators, and School Board Presidents

Claudette J. Harring

TEACHER SUPERVISION/EVALUATION IN THE SMALL (LEVEL III) SCHOOLS OF NORTH DAKOTA: A SURVEY OF TEACHERS, ADMINISTRATORS, AND SCHOOL BOARD PRESIDENTS

by
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This dissertation submitted by Claudette J. Harring in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education from the University of North Dakota is hereby approved by the Faculty Advisory Committee under whom the work has been done.

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This dissertation meets the standards for appearance and conforms to the style and format requirements of the Graduate School of the University of North Dakota, and is hereby approved.

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Permission

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Signature Claudette J. Hasing

Date October 25, 1984

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VITA

Claudette Joan Harring (nee Zwicker) was born in Peoria, Illinois. All of her elementary and secondary education was received in Turtle Lake, North Dakota. She earned a Bachelor of Science Degree from Wartburg College, Waverly, Iowa, in 1962 with a major in elementary education.

Between 1962 and 1967 she was employed full-time as an elementary teacher in Fridley, Minnesota and Spokane, Washington. She later did part-time elementary teaching in Tuttle and Kenmare, North Dakota.

Mrs. Harring completed her Master of Education Degree in educational administration in 1977 at the University of North Dakota. During this time she worked as a graduate teaching assistant with the Northern Plains Teacher Corps.

Additional professional experience was received when she served as the coordinator for the Small Schools Teacher Center in 1979-80.

Mrs. Harring has served as elementary principal of the Unity Public School District No. 80 in Petersburg, North Dakota. She is presently teaching kindergarten in this school system.

ABSTRACT

A questionnaire survey of the Level III (rural) elementary and secondary school teachers (518), administrators (259), and school board presidents (84) in North Dakota was conducted on the topic of teacher supervision/evaluation. Participating were 132 accredited public high school districts. The survey attempted to identify background characteristics of the respondents and current practices in teacher supervision/evaluation used in their school districts. In addition, the respondents were given an opportunity to provide their personal views as to the unique problems these small schools might have with teacher supervision/evaluation as well as to suggest ways in which the present programs or processes might be improved.

A high percentage of the total population were native to the state and had lived more than fifteen years in a rural setting. One-third of the elementary teachers had spouses who were originally from the community in which they were teaching.

A small percentage (8%) of the teachers had earned a degree beyond the bachelor's degree. A somewhat higher percentage of the secondary (38%) and elementary (27%) principals had more than a bachelor's degree. Only 5 percent of the total administrative group had earned a degree beyond the master's degree. Among school board presidents, 48 percent had received education beyond high school.

In general, the population expressed greater satisfaction than dissatisfaction with the supervision/evaluation practices in their

school districts. However, approximately one-third of the total population indicated personal dissatisfaction with the practices.

The area of personal relationships was indicated as a primary problem in small schools. Familiarity and informality among staff brought a lack of objectivity and openness to the process.

Administrators (69%) often held classroom teaching responsibilities. Therefore, administrators indicated a need for more time to devote to supervision/evaluation.

All groups viewed teacher supervision/evaluation as usually being conducted as a means for teacher improvement. However, most processes being used were summative rather than formative in nature. There appeared to be a need to refocus toward the goal of teacher improvement rather than that of administrative decision making.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Across the nation student populations are dwindling and budgets are being cut back, resulting in a reduction in teaching staffs. With this has come the demand for accountability to insure the procurement of the best teaching staff for the dollars available. Emphasis has been placed on quality in the selection and retention of teachers.

In addition there has been a nationally released and well-publicized study concerning American education which has prompted a growing public outcry for well-qualified and competent teachers in our nation's schools. As stated by Goldberg and Harvey (1983), the report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education made the following conclusions concerning teaching:

> that too few academically able students are attracted to teaching; that teacher preparation programs need substantial improvement; that the professional working life of teachers is, on the whole, unacceptable; and that a serious shortage of teachers exists in key fields. (p. 16)

The small school districts often have a difficult time attracting teachers, particularly at a time of nationwide teacher shortages. According to Dunathan (1980),

> [t]here are critical shortages of mathematics, science, vocational/industrial, agricultural, and special education teachers. Shortages in other specialties are being reported with increasing frequency. In a recent survey, rural school superintendents in nine Midwestern states more often reported shortages than surpluses in all but two teaching subjects. (p. 205)

To shed a little light on the small school teacher shortage problem Dunathan (1980) has identified several characteristics of small schools:

- Small schools consume more than their share of new teachers. The average annual employee turnover rate for schools is 6%; the small-school turnover rate is often three to five times that high.

- Small schools get fewer applicants for teaching jobs than do large schools. Not only are large-district salaries higher than their smaller competitors, but new teacher graduates predominantly prefer to teach in urban settings.

- Small schools increasingly get no fully qualified applicants for teaching vacancies and must resort to some form of provisional certification. . . . Midwestern states confirmed as much as a fourfold increase in requests for such certificates, particularly from superintendents in small districts.

- Small schools need teachers who can teach more than one subject. But teacher training and licensing officials have complied with large-district demands for teachers who are highly trained specialists. (p. 205)

Because there are fewer applicants for positions, there may also be a reduction in highly competent applicants. The fact that there are teachers with provisional certification may mean that they are struggling or floundering with instruction. Certainly a teacher new to the field has a need to further develop the skills for competent teaching. These reasons indicate the importance of a teacher supervision program functioning positively to improve teaching and learning.

Before improvement can be achieved in a school's teacher supervision program, it is necessary to look at the "state of the art." Assessing perceptions and attitudes of persons directly involved in the schools could provide direction for any changes needed. Often these "in-house" observations and suggestions can provide unique insights about the problems and the needed solutions. The data and information received might assist school systems, professional educational

organizations, and state departments of education. These groups must work with greater clarity and sense of direction in determined and creative ways to strengthen the teacher supervision in our nation's schools. "The challenge is clear: to establish the conditions and climate for teachers' continued intellectual growth in order to insure that children and youth are taught properly that which they must know" (Goldstein 1982, p. 28).

Use of Terms

Supervision and evaluation are words often used for the general processes by which school systems seek to develop the teaching skills needed to improve classroom instruction and learning. Evaluation is a word that often conjurs up feelings of fear or discomfort among educators. Many see it as a kind of judgment--"good" or "bad" teaching. Supervision, for many, is a word which implies more helpful, non-threatening assistance. This is the perspective taken by Sergiovanni and Starratt.

> Newer patterns of supervision which appear to be emerging in the more effective modern schools, however, offer opportunities for increasing school effectiveness. They depend largely upon promoting the personal and professional growth of the entire staff as a means of effectively managing the school enterprise. Such enlightened schools enjoy personal, social, and intellectual enrichment not only of school employees but of school clients as well. (Sergiovanni and Starratt 1971, pp. 9-10)

In this study the researcher chose to use both words throughout the data gathering process. It was thought that this presented a more neutral ground from which the population could respond. Using both supervision and evaluation provided a broader base from which to view the various processes and tools utilized within each school district. Furthermore, it was decided that evaluation was a term used more

prevalently; therefore, despite the negative overtones, the word would be familiar ground for the respondents.

Purpose and Process

The main purpose of this study was to survey elementary and secondary teachers, administrators, and school board presidents in the small schools in North Dakota (formerly designated as Level III districts) in order to gather data concerning background information about the respondents. Also of major concern was gathering the attitudes and perceptions of the teachers, administrators, and school board presidents regarding teacher supervision/evaluation as was currently practiced in their school districts. A secondary purpose was to seek individual observations from the teachers, administrators, and school board presidents concerning problems unique to small schools and to obtain constructive suggestions for ways in which supervision/evaluation could be improved in the school districts represented.

This study attempted to answer the following research questions in relation to the perceptions of the population being studied:

1. What is the distribution of males and females among the teachers, administrators, and school board presidents?
2. What percentage of the respondents are North Dakota natives?
3. How many years have the respondents lived in a small town or rural setting?
4. How many years have the respondents lived in their current community?
5. What percentage of the teachers are teaching in the community in which they were raised?

6. How many of the teachers have a spouse who is originally from the community in which the respondent is teaching?

7. What is the distribution of teachers at the various levels?

8. What is the length of experience for teachers and administrators at the various levels and in their present positions?

9. What is the distribution of administrators as superintendents, secondary principals, or elementary principals?

10. What level of credential is held by the administrators?

11. What percentage of time do the various administrators spend in an administrative capacity?

12. What percentage of the administrators hold additional professional positions?

13. What percentage of the school board presidents are serving the community in which they were raised?

14. How long have the school board presidents served as a member or president of the board?

15. What is the educational level of the respondents?

16. Who has primary responsibility for conducting teacher supervision/evaluation?

17. What, if any, kind of education or training have the respondents received in a supervision/evaluation process?

18. What methods of supervision/evaluation are being used?

19. What is the frequency of teacher observations?

20. Do respondents think that teachers should know beforehand when an observation is going to be conducted, is that process currently practiced, and is a time agreed upon for the observation beforehand?

21. Are records kept on all observations? If so, in what form?

22. Do the teachers preview the records before they are placed in the file?

23. What are the usual and personally significant reasons for conducting teacher supervision/evaluation?

24. Are there any particular problems in the supervision of teachers which are seen by the respondents as being unique to small school systems?

25. What constructive changes in the supervision/evaluation process do teachers, administrators, and school board presidents suggest?

Significance of the Study

The results of this study should be helpful to a number of groups:

1. Administrators--The results should help to provide a focus or direction for supervision/evaluation in the small rural school.

2. School board members--The results should provide helpful thoughts and suggestions when consideration is given to establishing a district philosophy for supervision/evaluation.

3. Graduate schools of education--The results of this study should be of assistance in this group's consideration of the necessary educational background required of those who conduct supervision/evaluation.

4. State Department of Public Instruction--The results of this study should be helpful in the consideration of the certification requirements for administrators in relation to supervision/evaluation.

5. Professional groups--The results should be of assistance to the North Dakota Council of School Administrators (NDCSA), North Dakota

School Boards Association (NDSBA), and the North Dakota Education Association (NDEA) as they seek to provide information through sponsorship of graduate courses, workshops, and convention programming.

6. Level III schools--The study should provide a means for an examination of the supervision/evaluation programs in these school districts. Aspects for examination might include supervisory personnel qualifications and commitment, instructional goals, teacher needs, and the supervision/evaluation methods employed.

Delimitations

The delimitations for this study were as follows:

1. The review of the literature was not intended to be exhaustive in scope. Rather the review was conducted as an overview to establish the need for the study.

2. The study was a descriptive rather than inferential study. Therefore, specific statistically significant research findings were not obtained.

3. The questionnaire was not tested for validity or reliability, although a pilot test was conducted.

Limitations

The limitations for this study were as follows:

1. Some of the administrators had dual roles; therefore, they may have received and responded to more than one questionnaire. The results may have been influenced by this possibility of overlapping role responsibilities and duplicated responses. However, even if this did occur, the percentage of possible duplications was minuscule.

2. The supervision/evaluation problems which the respondents considered to be unique to the small school were based upon what the respondents perceived the problems to be and not necessarily upon what the problems actually were.

The following chapter provides a review of the literature related to this study. The review is not intended to be exhaustive; instead, it is intended to provide an overview of the topic and to establish a need for the study. It focuses primarily on problems in small schools; the purposes, methods, and research pertaining to teacher supervision/evaluation; and suggestions which have been made for improving the teacher supervision/evaluation process.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In terms of education, rural America was not a highly visible or vocal segment of our society for many years. This may have been caused by the fact that rural people tended to be geographically scattered and fewer in number than urban and suburban people. As a result interest in rural education was not very apparent either. In recent years that scene has been changing; more thought and research have been generated dealing with an examination of the concerns, needs, and practices in rural schools.

While "rural" has been defined in various ways, the researcher's interest was with the very small school system with an enrollment of 300 and under.

> In the fall of 1977, there were 4,300 districts in the country with enrollments of fewer than 300 students. These school districts represented 26.7% of the districts in the United States, but the total enrollment in these districts accounted for only 1.2% of the total public school enrollment, grades 1-12. (Swift 1982, p. 3)

Not a lot has been written about these very small schools. More specifically, there has been a dearth of information available concerning supervision/evaluation in these schools.

The review of literature is presented in three sections in this chapter: an overview of rural education, reasons for and approaches to supervision/evaluation, and other ways to effect an improvement in the

supervision/evaluation process.

Characteristics and Concerns of Rural Education

> What is curious is that virtually all of us accept as true something that is entirely questionable: that a country education is necessarily inferior to a suburban education, and that all country schools are more or less the same.
>
> In fact, quite the opposite is true. Rural schools are at least as different from one another as city and suburban schools are, and some of them at least, are outstanding. (Eberle 1983, pp. 111-12)

Many children still receive their elementary and secondary education in small rural schools; this is true not just in North Dakota but also across the nation. The numbers of small schools and children seemed to vary in the literature. In 1979 there were 521,000 students enrolled in public schools of 300 or less (Grant and Eiden 1982). Two years later, in 1981, that figure had risen to 537,000 (Grant and Snyder 1983).

The Rural Educator

In recounting the findings from a number of rural educator research endeavors done by a variety of people, Edington (1976) identified a number of "characteristics of professional staff." Characteristics noted were the following: (1) Teachers were less qualified and did not remain long, (2) principals and superintendents used the small school as a preliminary step to a larger setting, (3) teachers had fewer degrees and less graduate training than teachers in larger schools, (4) teachers had multiple (5-6) daily preparations as well as extracurricular duties giving them little time to do additional professional study toward advanced degrees, (5) often teachers were teaching outside the area for which they were trained,

(6) an educator in a rural community generally enjoyed a place of high respect which provided a source of satisfaction, and (7) the school and its professionals were at the hub of social activities in the community. This kind of close interaction with the community provided additional satisfaction.

In regard to the educational background of rural teachers, 47.8 percent of the teachers in the nation in 1982 had a bachelor's degree and 51.5 percent had a master's degree or six years of college. Based upon those figures and the data reported in chapter 4, the small schools in North Dakota have considerably fewer teachers with advanced degrees than the national average ("Education '83" 1983).

According to Carmichael (1982), salaries for rural educators have been lower than those of personnel in urban settings. Nationally, a rural teacher received 24 percent less than an urban teacher. In this age of rising inflation, that has been considered an amount significant enough to deter a teacher from teaching in a rural school. Teacher talent has been turned away by the lower salaries. However, the lure of people to the urban setting may be attributed to other factors as well. Urban jobs have been more plentiful, both inside and outside educational settings. In particular, this has been an advantage to the husband and wife who were both seeking jobs. In addition, extensive educational, social, and recreational opportunities also served as invitations to an urban setting.

Massey and Crosby (1983) reported a nationwide study conducted by Dunne and Carlsen regarding teachers in rural schools. According to their 1980 study, 64 percent of the rural teachers had received no training for dealing with the special needs and characteristics

prevalent among rural schools. Oswald (1983) cited the research of Dr. William Cross from the University of Victoria in British Columbia. The problems and challenges that Cross identified which were faced by rural teachers included:

1. a sense of loneliness and isolation;
2. the necessity to deal with minority cultures;
3. a close interaction between school and community;
4. inclement weather conditions and transportation difficulties;
5. a need for versatility and resourcefulness, e.g., special training in drama, art, music, and physical education;
6. difficulty in establishing regular communication with peers and district staff;
7. inadequate and/or slow resource services;
8. a lack of support in dealing with special needs children;
9. a need for counselling skills (both student and adult);
10. inappropriate curriculum materials demonstrating little relationship to students' personal experiences;
11. a lack of personal privacy;
12. a need for classroom management strategies in multi-graded classrooms;
13. a heavy supervision load with no relief;
14. uncertainty in teaching assignment due to possible closure of smaller schools. (Introduction)

The rural segment of our population has been growing in the United States. Figures cited by Trippett (1980) indicated this growth pattern for rural America. "While the national population increased 4.8% from 1970 to 1975, towns of 2,500 to 25,000 rose 7.5% and the smallest towns, those with populations under 2,500 jumped by 8.7%, nearly double the national rate" (p. 73). Teacher training institutions have an imperative to address themselves toward assisting with the needs of the rural teachers in these communities.

Dunne and Carlsen (1981) found that most of the teachers in rural schools were raised in rural settings. (This finding was supported by the data collected for this study.) Massey and Crosby (1983) suggest that growing up rural may not always enable the rural

teacher to adequately deal with the characteristics of the school and/or community. Growing up rural may not intrinsically provide the teacher with qualifications for the job. In fact, being too close to the setting may blind the teacher to the real needs of the rural student. Needs may not be apparent unless the teacher has had an opportunity to experience a contrasting setting--to go and see beyond the confines of rural arenas.

According to Dunne (1981), teachers who teach in rural schools and the people who live in small communities have some specific needs to be met and specific skills to be acquired:

> New models for rural schooling must be developed, and rural teachers must be trained to use them if the schools for which country people are willing to fight are going to be worth that effort.
>
> What are these skills?
>
> 1. We must learn to identify the strengths of rural communities and rural life, and use them as the basis for construction of innovative teaching and curriculum development techniques.
> 2. We must learn to look to technology to provide small-scale, individually tailored curriculum [sic] which are not practical in the small setting. A microcomputer can teach students German II or Calculus, or many of your other low-frequency courses.
> 3. We must learn how to cooperate with others like us to achieve common goals. This last skill is the most difficult to acquire--and the most important. Rural people are not used to cooperation among communities; we have developed what Alan Peshkin calls "the habit of suspicion" towards our neighbors, and this limits our accomplishments. But this "habit of suspicion" must be overcome, or else you might as well make your plans for reorganization with the nearest large school district.
>
> Rural communities must learn to cooperate to fight inappropriate regulations on the state and federal level. They must learn to cooperate to share services, teachers, students, equipment--whatever they can. (p. 4)

Rural Teacher Education

The literature reviewed by the researcher contained numerous suggestions that higher education provide teacher preparation programs which would better prepare teachers for rural education settings. However, very few of our nation's colleges and universities have launched programs with a focus on preparation for rural teaching. As stated by Nachtigal (1982):

> Schools of education that train teachers specifically for rural school assignments are rare and, where found, likely to train teachers to cope as best they can in a system more suited for larger schools rather than seeking a pedagogy and curriculum more in tune with rural reality. (pp. 305-6)

One institution that focused on preparation for rural teaching was the University of Oregon. Undergraduate education majors replaced rural classroom teachers for three days. During this time the classroom teachers participated in a three-day in-service program delivered by graduate students in education from the University of Oregon. The future teachers were able to get a good taste of what teaching and living in a rural community was like. At the same time the rural teachers were able to be assisted with their needs (Rural Education Association 1980).

Brigham Young University also instituted a rural education program. In this program the student teacher stayed in a rural community for one semester. This on-site and in-depth look at rural teaching made it unnecessary for the university to conduct on-campus classes in rural education. Brigham Young University also developed a Ph.D. program to assist geographically isolated teachers in securing an advanced degree (Rural Education Association 1980).

To address the problems of attracting and retaining well-qualified teachers for rural settings, Carmichael (1980) suggested the following solutions:

> (1) [T]eachers' salaries, especially those in rural schools must become more competitive in the market place; (2) teacher education institutions should consider special training programs which will prepare personnel explicitly for service in rural areas; and (3) incentive programs should be developed to attract personnel to be trained for rural schools and to live in rural areas. (p. 13)

Reasons for and Approaches to Supervision/Evaluation

Supervision/evaluation has been viewed from a number of different perspectives. For some it has meant following the letter of the law--doing it because it was required. Others have seen supervision/evaluation as a means for directing the instructional team toward a given objective or goal. Still others have seen it as a way to control for quality. Among those of authority, some have used it as a means for presenting themselves and their systems to the public as having been accountable. Many have viewed it as essential for the promotion of teacher growth and the improvement of instruction. Still others have seen it as a combination of all the aforementioned views.

Educators have continued to explore supervision/evaluation in an effort to better understand and ultimately to improve the current "state of the art." The ensuing material provides a look at some of the reasons for and approaches to supervision/evaluation.

Reasons for Supervision/Evaluation

The topic of supervision/evaluation reached new heights of interest and concern in North Dakota in 1983. During the 1983 legislative session new legislation was enacted requiring the evaluation

of teachers and administrators. Those statutes read as follows:

> 1. 15-47-33.1. Each school district and the director of institutions in this state shall have an established system through which two written evaluations are prepared during each school year for every teacher who is in his or her first year of teaching. The evaluation must be in the form of written performance reviews, and the first review must be completed and made available to first-year teachers no later than December fifteenth and the second review must be completed and made available no later than February twenty-eighth of each year.
>
> 2. 15-47-38 (Par.5). . . . Each district shall have an established system through which two written evaluations are prepared for every teacher employed by the district during each school year. These written performance reviews shall be completed and made available to the teacher no later than December fifteenth for the first review and February twenty-eighth for the second review each year.
>
> 3. 15-47-38.1 (Par.2). At least once before March first, the school board of each school district shall conduct a formal and written evaluation of the performance of the superintendent employed by the district, which shall be provided to the superintendent. The written evaluation of a superintendent's performance must include recommendations with respect to all subject areas within which the school board considers the performance to be unsatisfactory. The governing body must provide in reasonable detail the basis for its assessment of the unsatisfactory performance. (North Dakota Century School Code 1984, sec. 15-47-33 and 15-47-38)

This legislation has already forced administrators, teachers, and school boards to formulate or reassess programs for supervision/evaluation in their schools. Out of necessity a reexamination of supervision/evaluation has surfaced.

Supervision/evaluation--what is it all about? A plethora has been written about the subject. As education entered the accountability era, the topic surfaced with renewed fervor. Educators were being held accountable for what happened in classrooms. How were teachers teaching? Was the teaching producing good results? Were children learning--why or why not? What were the best ways for assisting teacher growth? All these questions continue to be asked with an

urgency stimulated by the current national focus on an examination of America's schools.

Problems with supervision/evaluation at the turn of the century appear to have been essentially the same ones educators have continued to struggle with decades later. In her diary, Martha, a teacher, wrote:

> Supervision, as I understand it has in some places consisted, in the rather recent past, largely in standing a teacher alongside a score card and scoring her as the farmers do a beef cow; but these scores have all been personal opinion, not real measurement. It seems to me that the only way to measure a teacher is to measure the results of a teacher's work. Until we do that, the value of a teacher is merely a matter of opinion. (Pittman 1922, p. 267)

And the search goes on for answers to the supervision/evaluation dilemma. The literature contains many definitions of teaching and lists of qualities and characteristics that supposedly make for good teaching. However, there seems to be little verifiable evidence that supervision/evaluation based upon these definitions and characteristics will enable us to accurately identify and assist teachers' needs as well as to cultivate their strengths.

Some writers have indicated that effective supervision/evaluation has become even more necessary because of the quality of teachers. For example, the recent research of Roberson, Keith, and Page (1983) indicated that those high school seniors who were aspiring to become teachers were "somewhat" less capable intellectually than were the students entering other fields of study. This held true for white females and blacks but not for white males. If education has accepted some less-than-outstanding individuals into its programs, then the outcome has been that supervisors have had their work cut out for them. According to Mosher and Purpel (1972), "It is, however, a

generally accepted but unpublished view that insofar as teaching can be judged, most teachers are not excellent; indeed, most are considered competent or adequate at best" (p. 22).

Formative and Summative Evaluation

The literature describes two basic systems of evaluation--formative and summative. Each of the systems had a distinctly different use. The intended end result of formative evaluation has been the improvement of a teacher's performance. Formative evaluation has been accomplished by focusing on a specific teacher act during a classroom observation and providing data in order to analyze the effectiveness. Some possible ways of accomplishing this have been through a clinical supervision approach, by peer review, or by self-assessment.

Summative evaluation has been essentially done for administrative decision-making purposes such as whether to retain, dismiss, or reward a teacher. Summative evaluation has attached a value to teaching either by phrases (weak, below average, exceptional, superior) or by a numerical accounting system. The checklist has been a common means for collecting summative data.

It is important to remember the distinction between these two major purposes for evaluation.

> The worth of maintaining this distinction for teacher evaluation lies in the possibility it offers of reducing the suspicion and mistrust that have plagued teacher evaluation for years. . . . Whenever these systems are mixed, teachers receive inconsistent messages about the purposes and outcomes of evaluation. (Barber and Klein 1983, p. 248)

This distinction has been a problem for principals. In a study of the perceptions elementary principals had of their own clinical supervisory

expertise and perceived responsibility, Golanda (1982) concluded that "the vast majority of principals in this study do not appear to separate formative from summative evaluations" (p. 228).

A knowledge base must be established in order to improve programs of supervision/evaluation. Clarification and the appropriate use of formative and summative evaluative efforts have been needed by those directly and indirectly involved with supervision/evaluation in the schools.

Barber and Klein (1983) designed a system of teacher evaluation which utilized both formative and summative evaluation. Barber and Klein purport that their process, titled Peer-Mediated Self-Appraisal (PMSA), has met the concerns of teachers, administrators, and school boards. Beginning and new teachers were placed on a two-year time frame during which summative information was gathered to determine whether they had achieved district goals; they were then moved on to probationary status or were terminated. The probationary status period (one year) again utilized summative evaluation. Tenured teachers who were in need of "intensive assistance" had the possibility of placement on probationary status. Three kinds of decisions were considered by an administrator at the end of the probationary year: (1) determine if the teacher was to be placed in the standard formative evaluation system and tenured, (2) determine if the teacher was to receive intensive assistance or be terminated, or (3) determine if those on intensive assistance were in need of further assistance or should be terminated.

The standard formative evaluation was concerned only with teaching process and strategy. As part of this system the teachers were

all trained in the use of peer review and self-appraisal strategies and were entirely in charge of these facets of the evaluation. They kept records which were given to the supervisor. The standard professional review evaluation was to take place "at least once every three years for each teacher." The review utilized summative evaluation data agreed upon by the teacher and administrator/evaluator and was a check to see if a teacher's performance record was in agreement with the district's requirements. This system appeared to have merit for the small school with a teaching administrator/supervisor who had many constraints placed upon time available for the supervision/evaluation of teachers. "Its purpose is to allow faculty members to control their own formative evaluation each year, without coercion, threat, or intimidation, while one-third undergo a concurrent summative evaluation" (Barber and Klein 1983, p. 250). It is important that educators be able to discriminate formative and summative evaluation and that each be utilized for appropriate purposes.

What impact has supervision/evaluation had upon the improvement of instruction? What are the results? Does a program of supervision/evaluation "make a difference"? According to Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1981) too little research has been done to let us know.

> There is, in fact, little real evidence that supervision actually has had much impact on the improvement of instruction or, ultimately, on children's learning. That is not to say that supervision has not had positive effects; perhaps it has, but evidence simply is unavailable. If school districts are truly concerned about holding teachers accountable for the outcome of instruction, supervisors also should be held accountable for intelligently, directly, and effectively influencing the behavior of teachers. (p. 414)

In order to improve and refine teacher supervision/evaluation programs, ongoing research must be conducted. Supervisors and teachers

must be able to establish that the processes of supervision/evaluation utilized are affecting the desired outcomes. As stated by Bertrand Russell, "Most of the great evils that man has inflicted upon man have come through people feeling quite certain about something which, in fact, was false" (Dale 1984, p. 91). Truth must be established in the supervision/evaluation of teachers.

Approaches to Supervision

Broadly speaking, educational supervision has been thought to be comprised of all the endeavors carried out which have been directed at the improvement of the instruction afforded children. Conceptualizations of supervision which have been widely recognized and utilized were identified by Wiles and Bondi (1980).

> Over time the definition of what constituted supervision in schools has evolved into a number of distinct conceptualizations. These differ in focus and in how they relate supervision to other elements in the school environment. In all, six common concepts can be identified that define supervision in terms of administration, curriculum, instruction, human relations, management, and leadership. (p. 8)

Using the six concepts of supervision as identified by Wiles and Bondi (1980), the researcher has presented definitions of supervision from several sources which have been based upon those concepts. The definitions have been related in the ensuing discussion.

Harris (1975) defined supervision as having an <u>administrative</u> focus.

> Supervision of instruction is what school personnel do with adults and things to maintain or change the school operation in ways that directly influence the teaching process employed to promote pupil learning. Supervision is highly instruction-related but not highly pupil-related. Supervision is a major function of the school operation, not a task or a specific job or a set of techniques. Supervision

> of instruction is directed toward both maintaining and improving the teaching-learning processes of the school. (pp. 10-11)

Lucio and McNeil (1962) have supported supervision that utilized supervisory behavior based upon the hierarchical structure of the school. Such supervision purported to establish "standardized practices which relieve the individual teacher of minor choices" (p. 15).

Similarly, Lewis and Miel (1972) indicated that supervision needed to have a monitoring function, an administrative function, as a means for providing the insurance of quality.

> The function may be exercised in an authoritarian manner that emphasizes limits and closes doors. On the other hand, quality may be enhanced through intelligent cooperation among teachers and supervisory officials in ways that enlarge vision and open doors to higher achievement. (p. 43)

Supervision has also been identified as having a curricular focus. Cogan (1973) provided an example of a definition for supervision with this focus. In defining supervision, Cogan made a clear distinction between general supervision and his new focus on clinical supervision. Activities which were conducted outside the classroom were designated as general supervision. General supervision had a curricular focus.

> General supervision, therefore, denotes activities like the writing and revision of curriculums, the preparation of units and materials of instruction, the development of processes and instruments for reporting to parents, and such broad concerns as the evaluation of the total educational program. (p. 9)

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979) advocated a human resources approach to supervision. (This was distinctly different than human relations supervision which had been formulated earlier by Kimball Wiles.)

> Whereas human relations and human resources supervision are, for example, both concerned with teacher satisfaction, human relations views satisfaction as a means to a smoother and more effective school. The human relations supervisor might adopt shared decision making because it would increase teacher satisfaction. Satisfied teachers, it is assumed, would in turn be easier to work with, and indeed to lead, and therefore effectiveness would be increased. . . .
>
> The human resources supervisor, by contrast, views satisfaction as a desirable end toward which teachers will work. Satisfaction, according to this view, results from the successful accomplishment of important and meaningful work, and this sort of accomplishment is the key component of school effectiveness. The human resources supervisor would adopt shared decision-making practices because of their potential to increase school effectiveness. He assumes that better decisions will be made, teacher ownership and commitment to these decisions will be increased, and the likelihood of success at work, an antecedent to school effectiveness, will increase. (pp. 5-6)

Another form of supervision grew out of the world of business and industry. It has been referred to as a systems or management approach or, prior to 1970, as Management-by-Objectives (MBO). A more recent version adopted by education has been MBO/R, the R meaning Results. The transfer of MBO from business and industry, a product-oriented organization with limited objectives, to education, a service-oriented institution with multiple objectives, was not easy. As stated by Knezevich (1975),

> [t]he terminology of business and industry is not greeted with enthusiasm by educators. Teachers refuse to identify with "management" and, therefore, may resist being part of something called management by objectives and results. (p. 196)

Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1981) also identified supervision as having a focus on the management of an organization.

> [E]lements of supervision are manifested behaviorally in the procedures used in overseeing or directing the work of others. As a process, supervision is a series of decisions, actions, and interactions, and it connotes a continuity of relationship in contrast to one that is sporadic or disjointed. Supervision is a combination or integration of processes, procedures, and

> conditions that are consciously designed to advance the work effectiveness of individuals and groups. (p. 3)

A focus on supervision as instruction was put forth by Marks, Stoops, and King-Stoops (1978). They added an emphasis upon experimentation in their view of supervision.

> [S]upervision is action and experimentation aimed at improving instruction and the instructional program. Using this definition, supervision should be the concern of superintendents, principals, specialists, directors, consultants, deans, coordinators, chairmen, and teachers. (p. 15)

Supervision with a focus on leadership was defined by Wiles and Bondi (1980). "We define supervision as a leadership function that bridges administration, curriculum, and teaching, and coordinates those school activities concerned with learning" (p. 11).

Lovell and Wiles (1983) also related supervision as focusing on leadership functions.

> Supervision is an organizational behavior system that has the function of interacting with the teaching behavior system for the purpose of improving the learning situation for children. . . . The focus of the "supervisors'" roles is not so much to be competent in all areas and to be the "formal" leader in all situations but, rather, to facilitate the release of the human potential of organizational members that makes a more competent staff to conduct the human interaction that is called education. (p. 46)

Dull (1981) viewed supervisors and teachers as instructional leaders each with a focus toward a different clientele--teachers or students. He encouraged both supervisors and teachers to be educational leaders determined to improve learning: "Supervision refers to the actions of professional educators that are exercised for the purpose of improving instruction" (p. 5).

The cultural and social settings prevailing at particular times in history have served to determine the focus supervision has taken over the years. In recent years the focus for supervision has

largely been placed upon instruction. Much of what has been practiced in the schools has evolved from or been patterned after the clinical supervision model developed by Cogan and his colleagues. There have been many variations based upon his original model.

During the past decade clinical supervision has received recognition as one of the most helpful approaches for the improvement of instruction. Reavis (1978), in a summarization of literature related to the results achieved through the use of clinical supervision, stated that teachers favored clinical supervision over traditional supervision. "Taken as a whole, the studies affirm clinical supervision as a positive and beneficial model for the improvement of instruction" (p. 45).

According to Wiles and Bondi (1980), clinical supervision offered advantages over traditional methods of supervision. The following advantages were cited:

1. Supervisors and teachers work together toward common objectives.
2. Supervisors can influence teaching behavior to a greater degree.
3. Teachers and supervisors have positive feelings toward the supervisory process. (p. 111)

Clinical supervision was first conceptualized by Morris Cogan and his colleagues in the 1950s. Cogan began noting that the supervision which he and his colleagues were using with students who enrolled in the Master of Arts in Teaching program at Harvard was not providing the results they wanted. Cogan and those who were responsible for the supervision of the students began to scrutinize, rethink, experiment with, and change the process. What finally emerged was the clinical supervision model. The Cogan clinical supervision model focused on the improvement of instruction and utilized the

"cycle of supervision." This cycle consisted of eight phases. The phases were as follows:

Phase 1. Establishing the teacher-supervisor relationship
Phase 2. Planning with the teacher
Phase 3. Planning the strategy of observation
Phase 4. Observing instruction
Phase 5. Analyzing the teaching-learning processes
Phase 6. Planning the strategy of the conference
Phase 7. The conference
Phase 8. Renewed planning. (Cogan 1973, pp. 10-12)

Clinical supervision was to be a collegial experience. The supervision process was meant to occur <u>with</u> the teacher as opposed to that which would happen <u>to</u> a teacher. As stated by Cogan (1973),

> [i]t is apparent that teachers can learn to improve their teaching not only by way of conference, but by learning to take new roles in supervision, by way of a professional relationship with the supervisor, by planning with him, analyzing their teaching with him, experimenting with new behaviors, and, in sum, sharing colleagual help and support in many aspects of their work. (p. 29)

Wiles and Bondi (1980) also discussed this new emphasis on collegiality. This emphasis was not a part of traditional supervision.

> The aims of traditional supervision and clinical supervision are the same--to improve instruction. In traditional supervision, however, the supervisor is the instructional expert. In clinical supervision, both the supervisor and teacher are assumed to be instructional experts. The teacher and the supervisor communicate as colleagues, with the teacher identifying concerns and the supervisor assisting the teacher in analyzing and improving teaching performance. (p. 110)

In 1962 Goldhammer encountered Cogan and his work at Harvard where a program for experienced educators in leadership positions was being shaped. Goldhammer continued to study the clinical supervision process and developed a model which he called the "sequence of supervision." Five stages were defined by Goldhammer (1969) in the sequence of clinical supervision:

Stage 1. Pre-observation conference

Stage 2. Observation

Stage 3. Analysis and strategy

Stage 4. Supervision conference

Stage 5. Post-conference analysis

In 1968 Goldhammer died. His new book on clinical supervision was nearly completed. This work continued on through the efforts of Anderson and Krajewski. As defined by Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski (1980), clinical supervision was

> that phase of instructional supervision which draws its data from first-hand observation of actual teaching events, and involves face-to-face (and other associated) interaction between the supervisor and teacher in the analysis of teaching behavior and activities for instructional improvement. (pp. 19-20)

Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski (1980) provided a review of each of the five stages or steps:

1. Pre-observation conference. This stage was viewed as a time for planning and for developing a working relationship of warmth, trust, and support between the supervisor and the teacher. "If the sequence represents continuation of an ongoing relationship, the trust already earned and the history already recorded provide a basis for reestablishing, and perhaps raising to higher levels, the bases for productive supervision" (p. 33). During this conference the teacher's lesson was reviewed, the reason(s) for the observation were determined, and the strategy for the task of gathering the observation data was planned. The particulars of date, time, place, and length of the observation were also a part of the discussion at this conference.

2. Observation. According to the plan of the pre-observation conference, the supervisor carefully recorded data from the teaching

process which were relevant to the concerns of the teacher. "One reason for Supervisor to observe is that Teacher, being engaged in the business of teaching, cannot actually see the same things happening that a disengaged observer can" (p. 36).

3. Analysis and strategy. During this stage of the sequence the supervisor assessed the data gathered. The data were methodically reviewed according to the original request of the teacher. Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski (1980) thought of this as a positive move from previous supervision practices.

> From a historical perspective, a rationale for extensive analysis of empirical data in supervision is that teachers' anxieties and mistrust of supervision can be alleviated only if teachers of the future learn that supervision is (or can be) an essentially rational practice, that its methods are those of logical reasoning and forthright analysis, and that it incorporated neither the sanctions nor the mysteries nor the vagaries that have made them so helpless, so disquieted, and so independent in the past. (p. 38)

An additional part of this stage was to determine a plan for providing feedback of the results to the teacher.

4. Post-observation conference. Using carefully prepared notes, the supervisor provided feedback to the teacher on the lesson which was observed. It was intended that the feedback be presented in a manner that would reflect a caring and collegial relationship. As stated by Dull (1981), "In regard to positive versus negative feedback, it is well perhaps to provide mostly positive feedback to the highly defensive teacher and balance the positive and negative feedback to the more stable teacher" (p. 229).

5. Post-conference analysis. During this stage the supervisor and teacher reviewed the outcome(s) of the previous four stages in a self-reflective manner. Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski (1980)

described this stage as a means for establishing the worth of the process.

> Ideally the postconference analysis should comprise both a tête-à-tête session and Supervisor's self-reflective session. The tête-à-tête session is a postconference analysis with Teacher or, in some cases, with colleagues or significant others. In this joint session are examined the pluses and minuses of supervision techniques used, the implicit and explicit assumptions made, the values and emotional variables considered, and the technical and process goals effected. Data obtained from this examination assist Supervisor in making decisions to modify practices to better meet both Teacher's and Supervisor's needs. (p. 177)

As part of the self-reflective process, Reavis (1978) presented some possible questions the supervisor might ask of himself/herself during the post-conference analysis.

1. Was the teacher's professional integrity respected?
2. Did platitudinous comments and professional jargon give the appearance of agreement between us where no agreement actually existed?
3. Was the discussion time balanced between observer and teacher?
4. Was feedback on contract items specific and supported with reference to the classroom observation notes?
5. Was the analysis of the lesson adequate in light of the teacher's interpretation, and was the strategy appropriate?
6. Was the contract satisfactory? Was it specific? Was I successful in getting the teacher to place items in the contract that were of concern to him? (pp. 15-16)

It has been argued that clinical supervision consumes too much time. In the words of Lerch (1980), "The time the clinical supervisor spends in the classroom may be greater than it has been in the past, but the payoff in change may be greater too" (p. 239).

Where clinical supervision has flourished, time has been provided. However, time alone has not been the factor determining success. Critical to clinical supervision were teachers and supervisors who were well trained in the process and who possessed the understanding and skills necessary for effective supervision.

As part of a hypothetical discussion about clinical supervision, Krajewski (Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski 1980) emphasized the need for training in clinical supervision.

> Teachers should learn various teaching patterns and methods of clinical supervision through well planned preservice programs. They should also be made aware of the concept of clinical supervision so that they in turn can help the supervisor to understand why observation, analysis, and conferencing are important as vital components of instructional improvement. With courses of this nature for teachers and supervisors, clinical supervision can be introduced into the schools. (p. 9)

Woodruff (1982) studied the characteristics of teachers who had participated in clinical supervision. She recommended that there be a comprehensive training program for supervisors, teachers, and administrators prior to beginning the use of clinical supervision.

As with any supervision process that has been employed, clinical supervision has not been without flaws. As stated by Mosher and Purpel (1972),

> [c]linical supervision is vulnerable, in part because it chooses to concern itself with the practice of instruction, a form of behavior which is exceedingly complex and imperfectly understood. . . .
>
> Clinical supervision is full of gaps. It is a fact--an extremely sobering one--that we don't know, either theoretically or empirically, who the effective teacher is or what effective teaching is. It is a fact that there is evidence of very low validity and reliability in the analyses, inferences and evaluations supervisors make about teaching behavior. (p. 111)

Clinical supervision and its variations may not be a cure-all for the ills of supervision/evaluation. However, these processes offered bright possibilities for teacher improvement.

Approaches to Evaluation

Reference to the numbers of prevailing kinds, theories, or models of evaluation did not remain constant in the review of the

literature. Undoubtedly, this was because aspects of the models overlap or apply interchangeably. Therefore, the numbers of identified models and their assigned proponents varied.

As shown in table 1, House (cited in Madaus, Scriven, and Stufflebeam 1983) presented a comparison of the major models of evaluation. His comparisons were based on the theories underlying each model. The researcher has utilized the writings of House as well as those of additional sources in the following discussion of the models of evaluation.

1. Systems analysis. The questions asked through this model were answered by quantitative data. The model had its origin in the 1960s. It grew out of the scientific management systems used by government, business, and industry. With this model the instrumentation used needed to produce valid and reliable data. These data provided managerial and administrative people with information required to assist with decision making. According to House, Alice M. Rivlin was the foremost proponent of the systems analysis model.

2. Behavioral objectives. Responsible for the development of this model was Ralph W. Tyler. He believed that unless objectives were carefully defined the results of an evaluation were inconsequential. The model has also been referred to as goal attainment. According to Popham (1975),

> [t]he general approach recommended by Tyler involves the careful formulation of educational goals according to an analysis of three goal-sources (the student, the society, and the subject matter) and two goal-screens (a psychology of learning and a philosophy of education). The resulting goals are then transformed into measureable (i.e., behavioral) objectives. At the conclusion of an instructional program, measurements of pupils are taken in order to see the degree to which the previously established goals were achieved. Unattained goals reflect inadequacies in the instructional

TABLE 1

A TAXONOMY OF MAJOR EVALUATION MODELS

Model	*Proponents*	*Major Audiences*	*Assumes Consensus on*	*Methodology*	*Outcome*	*Typical Questions*
Systems Analysis	Rivlin	Economists, managers	Goals; known cause & effect; quantified variables.	PPBS; linear programming; planned variation; cost benefit analysis.	Efficiency	Are the expected effects achieved? Can the effects be achieved more economically? What are the most *efficient* programs?
Behavioral Objectives	Tyler, Popham	Managers, psychologists	Prespecified objectives; quantified outcome variables	Behavioral Objectives; achievement tests	Productivity; accountability	Are the students achieving the objectives? Is the teacher producing?
Decision Making	Stufflebeam, Alkin	Decision-makers, esp. administrators	General goals; criteria	Surveys, questionnaires, interviews; natural variation	Effectiveness; quality control.	Is the program effective? What parts are effective?
Goal Free	Scriven	Consumers	Consequences; criteria	Bias control; logical analysis; modus operandi	Consumer choice; social utility.	What are *all* the effects?
Art Criticism	Eisner, Kelly	Connoisseurs, Consumers	Critics, standards,	Critical review	Improved Standards	Would a critic approve this program?
Accreditation	North Central Association	Teachers, public	Criteria, panel, procedures	Review by panel; self-study	Professional acceptance	How would professionals rate this program?
Adversary	Owens, Levine, Wolf	Jury	Procedures and judges	Quasi-legal procedures	Resolution	What are the arguments for and against the program?
Transaction	Stake, Smith, MacDonald, Parlett-Hamilton	Client, Practitioners	Negotiations; activities	Case studies, interviews, observations	Understanding; diversity	What does the program look like to different people?

SOURCE: Ernest R. House, "Assumptions Underlying Evaluation Models," in Evaluation Models, eds. George F. Madaus, Michael Scriven, and Daniel L. Stufflebeam (Boston: Kluwer-Nijhoff Publishing, 1983), p. 48. (Reprinted with permission from the author.)

> program. Attained goals reflect a successful instructional program. (pp. 22-23)

This model utilized either norm-referenced or criterion-referenced tests to determine achievement of the desired objectives.

3. Decision making. The work of Stufflebeam was identified with this model. The nature of evaluation was determined according to the decisions required. Here again those primarily interested in this form of evaluation were manager/administrator types. The CIPP Model of Stufflebeam's identified decision settings and various kinds of decisions as well as the particular types of recommended evaluation needed for making each kind of decision. The four forms of evaluation he identified were titled Context, Input, Process, and Product (CIPP). Context evaluation helped to define the goals and objectives of a program. Input evaluation was focused on determining information on how resources needed to be employed in order to attain the goals. Process evaluation came into effect after a program was functioning and was designed to cull out the problems in the program. Product evaluation emphasized the outcome of the program and was designed to measure the achievement of the program. The model tended to use interviews and questionnaires to gather the information.

4. Goal-free. It was Michael Scriven who first offered this distinct system to the world of educational evaluation. The audience for this model has been the consumer. Evaluation with this model has been carried out without any knowledge of the predetermined goals, hence goal-free. The goal-free evaluator was focused on determining the outcomes of the program. As Popham (1975) stated,

> it consists of assiduously avoiding any "contaminating" knowledge regarding project goals, while trying to discern what the total effects of the project are. This is a tricky

> job, since to figure out what a project's effects are without access to any information regarding its contents forces the evaluator to draw inferences about probable effects on the basis of inspecting the program's components. Having drawn such inferences, then it is the evaluator's job to devise measures, or borrow them from the project where available, and assess the program's effects. (p. 28)

5. Art criticism. This model was derived from the nature of criticism as known in the arts and literature. Criticism here involved discernment, the application of considerable experience, and an ability to translate the findings in such a way as to communicate with others. The work of Eisner was most prominent in connection with this model. Raths and Preskill (1982) have provided a clarification of the discernment/criticism required with this evaluation model.

> The connoisseur is a person who makes discernments reliably and with sagacity. The critic is able to communicate to others the bases of these discernments. The evaluator, as connoisseur, might be able to distinguish between an excellent teacher and a mediocre one. In addition, as a critic he or she is able to cite the factors that contributed to the judgment. A key ingredient in teacher evaluation, therefore, is not merely making discernments of who is or is not a good teacher. The important factor is being able to communicate the basis of that discernment to teachers, to school boards, and pessimistically speaking, to the courts. (pp. 311-12)

Art criticism was not meant to be seen in opposition to scientific-based models (like the four previously mentioned). As stated by Eisner (1981),

> The field of education in particular needs to avoid methodological monism. Our problems need to be addressed in as many ways as will bear fruit. Interest in "qualitative research" is symptomatic of the uneasiness that many in the research community have felt with the methods of inquiry promulgated by conventional research tradition. . . . The issue is not qualitative as contrasted with non-qualitative or quantitative, but how one approaches the educational world. It is to the artistic to which we must turn, not as a rejection of the scientific, but because with both we can achieve binocular vision. Looking through one eye never did provide much depth of field. (p. 9)

6. Accreditation. The North Central Association was identified as a major proponent of this model. Self-study and a review conducted by an outside team of evaluators were methods employed to gain information with this model. This form of evaluation was useful to teachers and parents who were eager to know how well a school was performing. Primary attention was given to judgment based on intrinsic criteria. According to Popham (1975), the use of this model has diminished.

> Although few evaluators would recommend that intrinsic criteria be discounted completely in judgmental models, for these factors can sometimes help clarify what is really operative in a given program, evaluation models that employ intrinsic criteria are not often recommended with fervor these days. (p. 25)

7. Adversary. With this model a system similar to that of the judiciary has been employed in order to insure that both sides of a program--pros and cons--were presented. The final outcome has often been arrived at in a trial-by-jury format. Identified as proponents of this model were Owens, Levine, and Wolf.

8. Transaction. One of the major proponents of this model was Stake. His model has been called the Countenance Model. Through case studies, interviews, and observations, descriptions and judgments were formulated. Extrinsic criteria were used. This model functioned throughout an educational program--start to finish. Responsiveness to all members of the clientele on the part of the evaluator was essential to the evaluative process.

The theories underlying these models have influenced the various ways in which evaluation has been conducted in education. No single evaluation model has been identified as best. Usefulness or effectiveness has been dependent upon the needs of the program and the

needs of its audience.

No matter what evaluation system or model has been utilized, there have tended to be some characteristics and practices which have surfaced as having been more desirable. McGreal (1982) has identified these based upon his own extensive experience working with schools, teachers, and supervisors. The nine desirable practices were:

1. Attitude
2. Complementary Procedures, Processes, and Instrumentation
3. Separation of Administrative and Supervisory Behavior
4. Goal Setting
5. Narrowed Focus on Teaching
6. Use of a Modified Clinical Supervision Format
7. Use of Alternative Sources of Data
8. Different Requirements for Tenured and Nontenured Teachers
9. A Complete Training Program. (pp. 303-05)

Several of these desirable teacher evaluation practices may be noted in the twelve approaches to teacher evaluation as identified by Haefele (1980). These approaches were as follows:

> Approach 1: Teacher competence is measured by performance of the teacher's classes on standardized tests given at the end of the year. Year-end performance is compared with established norms.
>
> Approach 2: Standardized tests are administered to students to determine how much they increase their learning over time. The amount of desired gain is established in advance by school personnel, teachers, and an independent evaluator.
>
> Approach 3: Students in each grade or subject-matter area are tested at the beginning and end of each semester or school year. Gain scores are computed to contrast class performance (gain or loss) with classes of comparable ability. Teacher effectiveness is measured by proportion of "gainers" to "losers."
>
> Approach 4: Informal observations and ratings of the teacher are conducted by the principal and/or other supervisory personnel. Comments by students, parents, and colleagues are incorporated in the final evaluation.
>
> Approach 5: Systematic observation of the teacher is conducted by the principal and/or supervisor, using a rating form that lists characteristics of good teachers. The

teacher's evaluation score is compared to a school or district standard.

Approach 6: The teacher is systematically observed and rated by peers on the extent to which he exhibits important characteristics of good teaching. A predetermined school or district standard is the criterion.

Approach 7: The teacher's students use a rating form to judge the extent to which the teacher exhibits important characteristics of good teaching. The teacher must meet a predetermined school or district standard of effectiveness.

Approach 8: Teachers are required to take the National Teacher Examination (NTE) and achieve a predetermined standard composite score.

Approach 9: Periodically, the teacher is provided with an instructional objective, a sample test item measuring that objective, and information about the content it covers. A small group of students is assigned to that teacher randomly (to balance abilities) and is instructed by the teacher on the objective for one to 10 lessons. After instruction, the students are tested on the objective. Teacher effectiveness is determined on the basis of how well the students achieved the objective.

Approach 10: The Teacher Perceiver Interview is administered to teachers. Teacher effectiveness is based on how well the teacher meets a predetermined criterion or norm-referenced score.

Approach 11: The teacher is given written descriptions and/or shown films of typical classroom problems. The teacher's effectiveness is judged on the basis of answer quality.

Approach 12: The teacher, together with the principal and/or curriculum supervisor, establishes mutually agreed-upon (negotiated) instructional goals and objectives for the year. Observation data and other sources of information gathered at regular intervals during the year are used to monitor and evaluate the attainment of goals. (pp. 349-52)

It was Haefele's opinion that the goal-setting approach was a preferable though demanding route to instructional improvement. "It is the only approach based on mutual trust. The other techniques may isolate teachers and administrators and establish adversary rather than cooperative relationships" (1980, p. 352).

The Newport-Mesa Unified School District in California employed the appraisal by objectives system for over a decade. The following requirements were established for such a performance improvement and appraisal system:

1. The District's/Operating Unit's objectives should be clearly stated and available upon request.
2. The appraisee/appraiser (the teacher and those evaluating the teacher) should agree on what should be appraised and how the appraisal is to be made.
3. Focus should be on the results obtained and not the processes used. Processes used by the teacher should be considered as factors in the improvement of instruction. They should be monitored and analyzed in relation to the obtained results. Methods are to be appraised, not prized.
4. The appraisal of Staff Performance should be conscientiously and systematically undertaken.
5. The plan must operate within the legal requirements of the Board of Education and/or State.
6. Adequate resources should be made available so that the plan's operational requirements may be carried out.

(Lucio and McNeil 1979, pp. 261-62)

Throughout the literature there has been a recurring emphasis upon the importance of goal-setting as basic to supervision/evaluation. "In systems that function effectively, a recurring commonality is some form of goal setting between the teacher and the supervisor" (McGreal 1982, p. 304). Likewise, the literature has spoken clearly to the need to move from the use of instruments which gather summative kinds of information only. Lists of teacher characteristics, student achievement scores, and rating scales all appear to fall short of identifying the effective teacher. We need to move from evaluation that is "subjective, unreliable, open to bias, closed to public scrutiny, and based on irrelevancies" (Soar, Medley, and Coker 1983, p. 246).

Other Ways to Affect and Improve the Supervision/Evaluation Process

It goes almost without saying that for supervision/evaluation to be received more favorably, the relationship between the supervisor/evaluator and the teacher must be free of as many negative influences as possible. Walker and Sullivan (1982) prepared a list of twenty-five "annoying supervisory habits" and asked 300 full-time teachers to identify the five most distressing and to star the one most distressing of the five. The five identified were the following:

1. rarely or never compliments me on a job I think I've done well.
2. saying something and then denying it at the next meeting.
3. doesn't really understand my job.
4. answers a question with a question.
5. procrastinates on problems, saying, "We'll have to think about it." (p. 215)

Never receiving compliments was the single most distressing habit identified. Like the slogan, "Have you hugged your kid today?", supervisors may need to ask themselves, "Have you complimented a teacher today?"

Allen, Lyons, and Reynolds (1976) suggested that if evaluation was primarily for assisting teacher improvement, the following characteristics were essential if the process was to be successful:

1. Supervisors need some personal management skills. . . .
2. Evaluation should be seen as something done <u>with</u> teachers, not <u>to</u> them. . . .
3. Staff evaluation should be part of a total management system. . . . (pp. 3-4)

According to Blumberg (1980), there have been characteristics of a supervisory experience which teachers have seen as productive.

> Their supervisors communicated a willingness to engage with them; they dealt with problems of teaching and learning; they had resources that were made available; the image they

> presented to the teacher was that of a human being first and a supervisor second. (p. 25)

Lapman (1957) discussed ways in which professional relationships might be improved between teachers and supervisors. Teachers should receive training "in the meaning and techniques of supervision. How can teachers understand and appreciate the role of supervisor if they know very little about it?" (p. 41).

There is little doubt that in many schools the relationship between teacher and supervisor/evaluator has been cold and antagonistic when it should have been warm and collaborative. "[T]he character of relationships between teachers as a group and supervisors as a group can be described as somewhat of a cold war. Neither side trusts the other and each side is convinced of the correctness of its position" (Blumberg 1980, p. 5). Blumberg investigated the behavioral styles of supervisors as related to the interpersonal relations between supervisors and teachers. He based his analysis upon four styles of supervisory behavior. Blumberg's study was presented by Harris (1975):

1. High in <u>both</u> direct and indirect behavior
2. High in use of direct behavior, but low in use of indirect
3. Low in use of direct behaviors, but high in use of indirect
4. Low in <u>both</u>--not much use of either; relatively passive. (p. 243)

It was found that two effective behavioral styles were when the supervisor was high in the use of both direct and indirect behaviors and when the supervisor used low direct behaviors but was high in the use of indirect behaviors. Positive relationships tended to develop when a supervisor's behavior was seen as "consisting of a heavy emphasis on both telling, suggesting, and criticizing, and on reflecting, asking for information, opinions, and so forth, or when a

teacher perceives his supervisor as putting little emphasis on telling and much on reflecting and asking" (Blumberg 1980, p. 80). Boyan and Copeland (1978) have addressed this type of behavior.

> Providing assistance to teachers is central to the supervisory role. Particularly helpful is the behavior of instructional supervisors who have adopted a view of their function as one emphasizing specific help, a collegial relationship, sharing experiences and expertise, and focusing on the development of the teacher's instructional abilities. (p. vii)

The quality of relationships appears to be related to an effective teacher/supervisor effort. However, the professional skills and knowledge of a supervisor appear to be essential to the success of supervision/evaluation.

Evaluation by Competent Supervisors

No matter what kind of supervision/evaluation has been practiced, it has not served the needs of the school district well unless an administrator was professionally competent. Golanda (1982) conducted a study of the elementary school principal as an instructional leader. One of his conclusions was that when it comes to instructional improvement, many principals are not involving themselves in any systematic way, and they are lacking in the kinds of supervisory skills needed to assist teachers toward improvement of their instructional skills.

Finn (1984), in his proposal of "commandments" for improving school effectiveness, addressed the issue of weak principals.

> I contend that efficient management should occupy only a small fraction of a principal's day--or should be left almost entirely to a conscientious lieutenant. The attributes of a principal that really influence school effectiveness are prowess in instructional leadership and mastery of purposeful school improvement schemes. (p. 521)

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971) pointed out that teachers strongly object to having supervisors assisting them when they believe that these supervisors are not adept at their level or in their subject matter.

> The basic issue in regard to instructional leadership is simply: How do we reconcile the gap which frequently exists between the authority for leadership (by virtue of position) which supervisors have and the ability for leadership (by virtue of professional expertness) which subordinates have? More bluntly, how can we expect an elementary school principal to supervise kindergarten and first-grade teachers and to conduct curriculum development at this level when he clearly may not be qualified for this work by virtue of his professional orientation, preparation, and experience? (p. 97)

Inservice education for teachers has been widely developed and practiced for a number of years. Teachers have been extended opportunities through their school districts to update and assist their professional growth. However, this has not been as true for administrators as indicated by Beckner and Foster (1980).

> Leadership education for school administrators through inservice training has received too little attention from universities, state education agencies, and the federal government. Inservice education programs for teachers and school counselors are getting much needed attention; but principals, assistant superintendents, and superintendents are still neglected. This is particularly true for small school administrators. (p. 40)

Just as teachers have needed to have opportunities and resources which promote their professional growth, so too administrators have needed assistance via inservice programs. Beckner and Foster (1980) have left little room for doubting the importance of this need.

> If principals are to provide adequate educational leadership in their schools and communities, professional organizations, universities, and school boards must give more attention, effort and money to inservice education designed and offered specifically for principals. Such provision will pay ample dividends in improved educational opportunities for young people of our nation. Failure to make such provision will

> result in continued principal frustration and steadily deteriorating educational programs. (p. 42)

Research efforts have shown that where there have been effective leaders in schools, there has been an increase in student achievement (Cawelti 1980). Skilled and knowledgeable leaders have been able to make a difference. According to Sweeney (1982), "Principals who make a difference do so because they not only know where they are going but how they will reach their destination" (p. 40).

Use of Videotaping

Videotaping as a means of self-assessment has had mixed reviews in the literature. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979) identified some of the negative aspects related to the use of videotaping in order to assist teacher growth.

> [B]ecause of the selective nature of lens and screen, this technique can also frame perception and evoke slanted meanings. Further, what the screen shows always represents a choice between possibilities and therefore provides an incomplete picture. And finally, some aspects of classroom life do not lend themselves very well to lens and screen and could be neglected. (p. 322)

However, there appear to be enough positive findings to merit its consideration as a means for assisting teacher improvement. Results of an in-service program conducted by The Southern Association of Colleges and Schools indicated that rural teachers who studied videotapes of their teaching made improvements in instructional skills, attitudes, and interactions with pupils (Edington 1976).

It appears that under defined conditions teachers will use videotaping and will be able to determine a focus for an analysis of the videotaped lesson (Ellett and Smith 1975). Teachers who used a self-rating instrument along with a videotape replay of their teaching

made significant modifications in their performance.

In the Hosford-Neuenfeldt Study classroom teachers were asked to rate the videotaped teaching demonstrations of graduate students. It was found that "professional educators all obtain high intergroup agreement in their evaluations of the videotape segments" (Hosford and Martin 1980, p. 13).

As part of the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study, teacher behavior was evaluated utilizing videotape recording. It was determined that, "In summary, videotape recording does seem to have a place as a tool for studying teacher behavior. For some purposes, such as looking in detail at certain teacher behaviors, the advantages of observation through videotapes do outweigh the disadvantages" (Sandoval 1976, p. 92).

Peer Supervision

Peer supervision has entered the scene in more recent years. Teachers interested in having more control over their professional well-being have utilized peers--teachers helping teachers.

However, some teachers have been totally unwilling to engage in peer supervision in fear of jeopardizing faculty relationships.

> Teachers I have interviewed strongly oppose peer evaluation. Negative peer reports, they state, could create disharmony and alienation among faculty. Their perceptions of teachers and administrators as distinct groups with different functions and roles prompt them to assign teacher evaluation responsibility to administrators. (Haefele 1980, p. 350)

In addition, "teachers must have an openness and trust among peers that exist in few places" (Wiles and Bondi 1980, p. 115). Not only were teachers hesitant about the use of peer supervision, but some administrators were wary also.

Although peer supervision has been utilized in the gathering of summative data for administrative purposes, Cooper (1982) suggested that it was more appropriately used as a formative system aimed at teacher improvement.

> A beginning point, perhaps, is the acceptance of the distinction between administrative and consultative supervision, and the development of appropriate training programs for the consultative supervisor utilizing clinical supervision skills and techniques. When there are sufficient numbers of trained consultative supervisors to work with teachers and peer supervision programs have been implemented then more positive effects of instructional supervision can be expected. (p. 1832)

Alfonso (1977) pointed out that peer supervision must be perceived as only one facet of an overall instructional improvement program. It must not be just something else "tacked on." Rather, it must evolve out of a total school focus and effort in order that it not become just another empty activity without purpose or direction.

> This means that peer supervision, as an extension of the formal system, might still be expressed in several forms--from the most modest examples of help and influence, to clinical analysis and feedback, to shared responsibility for evaluation. Peer supervision can make a strong contribution in each of these areas, but it must be consonant with organizational goals, and it must supplement and not attempt to displace formal supervision if it is to hold any promise at all. (p. 601)

Limitations to peer supervision have been delineated clearly by Alfonso (1977). Schools have tended to be closed organizational structures which have not invited exchange among teachers. Traditional supervisors have been reluctant to relinquish some of their responsibilities, and even if they had, teachers did not have time available themselves to conduct the supervision. Schools have lacked an aura of trust which might have assisted an exchange among teachers. There has been the possibility for peer supervision to be an entity unto itself--disconnected from the total program of instructional

improvement--without direction or focus. Peer supervision has been suspected of providing an avenue for increased teacher power. The potential for supervision being sandwiched in or passed by because of the decisions made between school boards and teachers has been raised. Having lacked coordination with an overall program designed for instructional growth, peer supervision has risked its effectiveness. Finally, concern was voiced as to the effectiveness of peer supervision among tenured teachers with whom supervisors themselves have had some difficulty effecting changes.

A staff development program in the District of Columbia utilized the clinical supervision model in a peer supervision program. The teachers received extensive training in the use of the model. An evaluation was conducted in an effort to determine whether the teachers were applying their knowledge several years later. According to McBeath and Carter (1981), the evaluation indicated that "test results covering knowledge of the techniques have consistently shown significant gains made by participants. Questionnaires and monitoring reports indicate that teachers are using peer supervision methods learned through the project" (p. 15). It could be speculated that satisfaction with the process may have prompted the teachers to continued use of peer supervision.

Teachers have often resisted supervision because it seemed to be replete with tones of judgment and inspection. Withall and Wood (1979) reported that peer clinical supervision appeared to provide a supportive environment and "results in positive attitudes toward supervision" (p. 58). Ellis, Smith, and Abbott (1979), in describing a rural elementary principal's use of a peer observation clinical

approach, also reported that "teacher attitudes toward supervision had significantly improved" (p. 425).

Bryant and Haack (1977) offered their advice on how to develop and maintain an effective peer supervision program.

> The program of peer self-evaluation should begin with the definition of the competencies to be developed by teachers. These need to be studied intensively by staff members, and a period of time must be allowed for discussion of their meaning and acceptance or rejection. Some instrumentation needs to be provided so there is a means of measuring collected data against a criterion. The training program should develop objectivity skills and the ability to collect and categorize data based on what is seen or heard in the classroom. The training program should include not only fairly simple exercises of viewing and recording data, but should also move to more complex film-training models and should conclude with experiences in a live classroom setting for training purposes. (p. 610)

In spite of the limitations, peer supervision has been considered to have potential for effecting teacher improvement. As stated by Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971), "One thing seems clear: school clients grow and mature as the professional staff develops. Self-fulfillment for students is little more than an educational pipe dream if we deny self-fulfillment to teachers" (p. 151).

Self-Evaluation

It certainly has been an expectation that teachers become more involved in monitoring their own teaching performance. Beach and Reinhartz (1982) have provided a philosophy for the use of self-evaluation or self-assessment in schools.

> The undergirding philosophy of the self-assessment procedure is teacher self-awareness and an objective perception of the instructional self based on research findings. Developing competency in self-assessment comes with practice. Only a willingness on the part of the classroom teacher to engage in a step by step approach on a regular basis will result in instructional improvement and change taking place on a continued basis. (p. 9)

However, little solid research was found in settings where self-evaluation had been used. Nevertheless, it has been considered helpful for teachers to be reflective about their endeavors. Simpson (1966) has spoken clearly to this need.

> Teacher self-evaluation is almost unanimously recommended by teacher organizations and professional experts on teacher improvement. Regardless of the extent of disagreement on other characteristics of good teachers there is almost universal consensus that self-improvement based on self-evaluation is both desirable and crucial. (p. 11)

Self-evaluation, to be effective, should be an encouraged and a voluntarily assumed activity without any threat or coercion which might decrease its effectiveness. Roe and Drake (1980) wrote about this aspect. "It is reasonable to expect that a teacher is interested in assessing his/her performance as a teacher. The principal can encourage this interest by creating threat-free vehicles whereby the teacher may assess his/her work" (p. 255). It has been helpful for administrators to have an understanding of Maslow's hierarchy of needs when encouraging the use of self-evaluation. These hierarchical motivational needs were identified as follows: physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization. As stated by Roe and Drake, "A study of Maslow's theory indicates that if behavior is to be motivated, it must be done so at the level of a need that is currently unsatisfied" (p. 58). It would appear plausible to posit that those teachers interested in self-evaluation have a need for esteem and/or self-actualization. Hersey and Blanchard (1977), in discussing the achievement aspect of the self-actualization need, identified these individuals as "more concerned with personal achievement than with the reward of success" (p. 44). Individuals with achievement motivation

also "might want task-relevant feedback. They want to know the score" (p. 44).

Teachers have not always possessed the skills needed for self-evaluation. The skills necessary for self-evaluation must be learned. Doll (1982) has spoken to this concern.

> The teacher's self-evaluation of his or her own work offers one of the most promising ways of improving schools. Teachers need help in studying the differences between the nature of their intent and the outcomes they are achieving. Their objectives may need changing or amending; their methods may be faulty. To know that such circumstances exist, teachers need to observe skillfully and to record data carefully. Because the evaluation process, including self-evaluation, is probably an unfamiliar one, supervisors and administrators should be prepared to help teachers at any point in the process. (p. 203)

Bailey (1980), in discussing rural self-directed staff development, identified self-help skills teachers need to develop. These skills were as follows:

1. Teachers must be able to objectively assess their performance.

2. Teachers must be able to self-critique to assess strengths and weaknesses.

3. Teachers must be able to assess the primary teaching behaviors involved in the teaching process.

4. Teachers must be able to use a variety of tools which will assist in the collection of the desired classroom instructional data.

Teachers will need help in developing their self-assessment skills. McGreal (1983) employed the forced-choice technique with the use of the Teacher Appraisal Instrument. The use of this technique assisted a teacher in defining an area considered to be weakest. This identified area then became a focus for self-supervision for the

teacher.

Self-evaluation has been most effective when teachers and administrators have developed a communication system that was non-threatening and supportive. Teachers and administrators have seen each other as mutually bonded in the endeavor for teacher growth. Self-evaluation was seen as but another tool to be used in the supervision/evaluation process. Self-evaluation, if used appropriately, can offer possibilities for assisting in teacher improvement. Crenshaw and Hoyle (1981) have addressed this point:

> Self-evaluation is the key to professionalism. All professionals must continually survey their abilities and methods in the spirit of improvement. Self-evaluation is indispensable in any form of teacher evaluation. (p. 40)

As a possible resource, it may be helpful for the reader to know that Dull (1981) has provided a set of questions which might serve to help teachers think carefully about their performance. In addition, Beach and Reinhartz (1982) have produced a self-assessment instrument which has focused on a teacher's classroom conduct as well as on a diagnosis of the lesson a teacher has taught.

The review of literature has helped to define some of the needs and directions for supervision/evaluation in the small rural schools of North Dakota. Rural schools and rural educators had some particular identities which needed to be considered. There have been a number of reasons for the supervision/evaluation of teachers. Receiving major focus has been teacher and/or instruction improvement. Practices toward this end have been many, varied, and changing. Results of these practices have not been thoroughly researched. Clearly, careful and continued research must be conducted in the local schools as well as through schools of higher education and state departments of

public instruction.

Part of focusing on teacher improvement has been assisting teachers in their growth toward self-assessment--individually and with peers. In many situations, teachers have been their own best teachers. Attention to this concern has been growing.

Teacher supervision/evaluation has been and continues to be a primary and essential concern for administrators, teachers, and the public. Small rural schools must take note of their special and particular needs. Educators will strengthen these schools by their continued efforts to study and assess, change, and improve the supervision/evaluation programs in these small schools.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In this study, elementary and secondary teachers, administrators, and school board presidents in 132 Level III school districts in North Dakota were surveyed. The Level III districts selected were accredited public high school districts.

Up until 1983, school districts in North Dakota were classified into four levels on a point system. Points were received for each accreditation standard and criterion achieved. Level III school districts were generally the smallest districts in the state and received fewer points toward the accreditation designation. Those districts which received the lowest number of points were nonaccredited districts.

Sample

As a means of identifying the small school districts to be used in this study, the researcher chose to use the school districts designated as Level III in the North Dakota Educational Directory: 1981-1982 (Department of Public Instruction 1981) even though this categorization system is no longer in use. This list of districts was cross-checked with the North Dakota Educational Directory: 1982-1983 (Department of Public Instruction 1982) to be certain that all districts were currently accredited.

Within each of these districts the researcher randomly selected three elementary teachers and three secondary teachers who were indicated as having 75-100 percent teaching responsibilities. The teachers' names were randomly selected from an alphabetical computer listing supplied by the State Department of Public Instruction.

In addition, the research population consisted of all superintendents, elementary and secondary principals, and school board presidents from each of these Level III districts. Mailing labels for these groups were supplied by the State Department of Public Instruction.

Invited to participate in this study were 758 teachers, 366 administrators, and 132 school board presidents from 132 Level III school districts. The researcher elected not to include Unity High School, Petersburg, because of her association as a faculty member and elementary principal in that school. Due to an error in the mailing process, teachers in the Beach school district were not included.

Instrumentation

The researcher designed questionnaires (appendix B) to gather background information, perceptions regarding current teacher supervision/evaluation practices, and observations and suggestions from all respondents in the three representative groups: teachers, administrators, and school board presidents. The first page of the questionnaire--Part A: Background Information--was different for each group. The remaining three pages of the questionnaire were identical for all respondents.

The researcher consulted with an individual knowledgeable in setting up questionnaires to be keypunched. A separate item number

system was devised for keypunching purposes.

The questionnaires were printed on colored paper--a different color for each group in the population (i.e., green for administrators, gold for teachers, and blue for school board presidents). The different colors facilitated the preparing of the questionnaires for mailing and the handling of the returns.

No attempt was made to check the questionnaire for validity or reliability. Students and faculty members from the graduate program in educational administration were chosen for a pilot study of the questionnaires. There were no particular problems experienced by this group in responding to the teacher, administrator, or school board president questionnaires. A number of minor changes in format and phrasings were suggested by the pilot study group. Several of the suggestions were incorporated into the questionnaires. In the background section of the teacher questionnaire the words "check all that apply" were added to items H, I, and J. The request for credit hours was deleted on Item K and instead the "highest degree earned" was requested. In the background section of the administrator questionnaire the words "check all that apply" were added to items E, G, H, I, and J. The request for credit hours was deleted from item K and the "highest degree earned" was requested. Added to the current practices section of the questionnaire for items W and Y were the words "check all that apply." On item Z the request for selecting and prioritizing the top three reasons for conducting teacher supervision/evaluation were eliminated. Instead the respondents were asked to "check only <u>one</u>" most significant reason.

Data Collection

A cover letter (appendix C) was composed to accompany the questionnaire. Each member of the population received a personally addressed letter. Teachers and administrators received the questionnaires at their school address. School board presidents received the questionnaires at their home address. Address labels for the administrators and school board presidents were supplied by the State Department of Public Instruction. Address labels for the teachers were prepared using a list supplied by the State Department of Public Instruction.

In addition to the cover letter and questionnaire, each mailing also contained a stamped, addressed envelope and postcard (appendix D) with the researcher's home address. The envelope was used in returning the questionnaire. All questionnaires were completed anonymously. A return of the postcard enabled the researcher to know who had completed and returned a questionnaire while preserving the anonymity of the respondent completing each questionnaire. In the event that a second mailing would have been necessary for an adequate percentage of returns, knowing who had responded would have eliminated duplicate follow-up mailings.

The questionnaires were mailed the last week in February with a return requested not later than March 4th. This allowed a two-week return time period. Questionnaires continued to be received by the researcher for an additional three weeks. All questionnaires which were received--even those received after the deadline--were included in the data processing. The following are the numbers and percentages of returned questionnaires from each of the three groups:

Teachers = 518 (68%)

Administrators = 259 (72%)

School board presidents = 86 (64%)

These percentages exceeded the return percentages deemed essential for an adequate sample. No additional follow-up mailings were needed or made.

Data Analysis

The questionnaires were processed individually by keypunch operators in the Computer Center at the University of North Dakota. The keypunched cards were then computer processed. Since this was a descriptive study, a measure of relative position--percentile rank--was selected for presenting the statistics. The questionnaires were not tested for validity or reliability. The responses to the research questions were compiled and translated into graphs and tables. Comparisons and similarities were noted among the three responding groups.

The researcher reviewed the questionnaires individually in order to record and classify the handwritten "observations/suggestions" made by the respondents. The results of this effort were compiled into lists, and the frequencies of the responses were reported.

The researcher drew conclusions and recommendations based upon an analysis of the data. Methods and procedures which could conceivably effect an improvement in future supervision/evaluation programs were presented.

The following chapter will provide the findings obtained from the questionnaires. The researcher attempted to present this material in clear and concise ways in order to provide the reader with easily

manageable information.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The purpose of this chapter is to report the data which were gathered from teachers, administrators, and school board presidents in the Level III schools of North Dakota. The data pertain to the teacher supervision/evaluation programs used in these schools.

The data reported in this chapter represent the responses of 863 teachers, administrators, and school board presidents. Responding to the questionnaire were 518 (68%) of the teachers in the sample, 259 (72%) of the administrators, and 86 (64%) of the school board presidents. Some of the respondents did not complete all of the questions; therefore, there are missing values. These missing values were not reported in the tables. The percentages found in the tables are based upon the total numbers of respondents; therefore, the total percentages found in the tables do not always equal 100 percent. This is due not only to the missing data but also to the possibility that some administrators may have responded to two questionnaires because of their dual roles. An analysis of the data follows. The discussion of the data is presented in three parts. Each part is related to a corresponding section of the questionnaire: background information, current practices, and observations/suggestions.

Background Information

The background information section of the questionnaire was designed to gather data specific to each of the three groups in the sample. This section asked for information concerning sex; rural living experience; teaching, administrative, or school board experience; and level of education. While the first four questions were identical for all three groups, the other questions were different.

Sex

In table 2 and figure 1 are found the numbers and percentages regarding the sex of the three groups of respondents. There were approximately twice as many females as males among the total number of teacher respondents. However, the largest percentage of females (90%) was clearly among elementary teachers. Somewhat less than half (36%) of the secondary teachers who responded were females.

Among the total number of administrator respondents, 16% of them were females and 83% were males. More specifically, according to positions, only 1% of the superintendents were females, 3% of the secondary principals were females, and 47% of the elementary principals were females.

Among the school board presidents 14% of them were females and 86% were males.

North Dakota Native

As shown in table 2 and figure 2, most of the teacher respondents had been born in North Dakota. The examination of the data indicated that 85% were North Dakota natives. There was very little difference in the percentages between teaching levels; 86% of the

TABLE 2

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE: BACKGROUND INFORMATION COMMON TO THE TOTAL POPULATION

Variable		Teachers N	Teachers %		Administrators N	Administrators %	School Board Presidents N	School Board Presidents %
A. Sex								
Male	*Tot.	185	36	**Tot.	219	83	74	86
	*Sec.	148	64	**Supt.	112	99		
	*Elem.	26	10	**S. Prin.	83	97		
				**E. Prin.	41	53		
Female	*Tot.	332	64	**Tot.	43	16	12	14
	*Sec.	85	36	**Supt.	1	1		
	*Elem.	231	90	**S. Prin.	3	3		
				**E. Prin.	37	47		
B. Are you a North Dakota native?								
Yes	*Tot.	439	85	**Tot.	237	90	84	98
	*Sec.	197	85	**Supt.	99	88		
	*Elem.	220	86	**S. Prin.	80	93		
				**E. Prin.	72	92		
No	*Tot.	78	15	**Tot.	25	10	2	2
	*Sec.	36	15	**Supt.	14	12		
	*Elem.	37	14	**S. Prin.	6	7		
				**E. Prin.	6	8		

TABLE 2--Continued

Variable	Teachers N	Teachers %	Administrators N	Administrators %	School Board Presidents N	School Board Presidents %
C. How many years have you lived in a small town or rural setting? (Responses reported for total sample)						
1-5 yrs.	44	9	4	2	0	0
6-10 yrs.	27	5	14	5	1	1
11-15 yrs.	16	3	15	6	0	0
Over 15 yrs.	427	83	228	87	85	99
D. How many years have you lived in this current community? (Responses reported for total sample)						
1-5 yrs.	206	40	103	39	0	0
6-10 yrs.	85	16	56	21	5	6
11-15 yrs.	50	10	28	11	5	6
Over 15 yrs.	166	32	72	27	76	88

*Tot. = Total teachers, Sec. = Secondary teachers, Elem. = Elementary teachers

**Tot. = Total administrators, Supt. = Superintendents, S. Prin. = Secondary Principals, E. Prin. = Elementary Principals

Note. On this table and all tables to follow, the percentages are based on the total numbers of respondents. Since missing data are not reported and since there is the possibility that some administrators may have responded to two questionnaires because of their dual roles, totals for frequencies and percentages may not always appear to be correct.

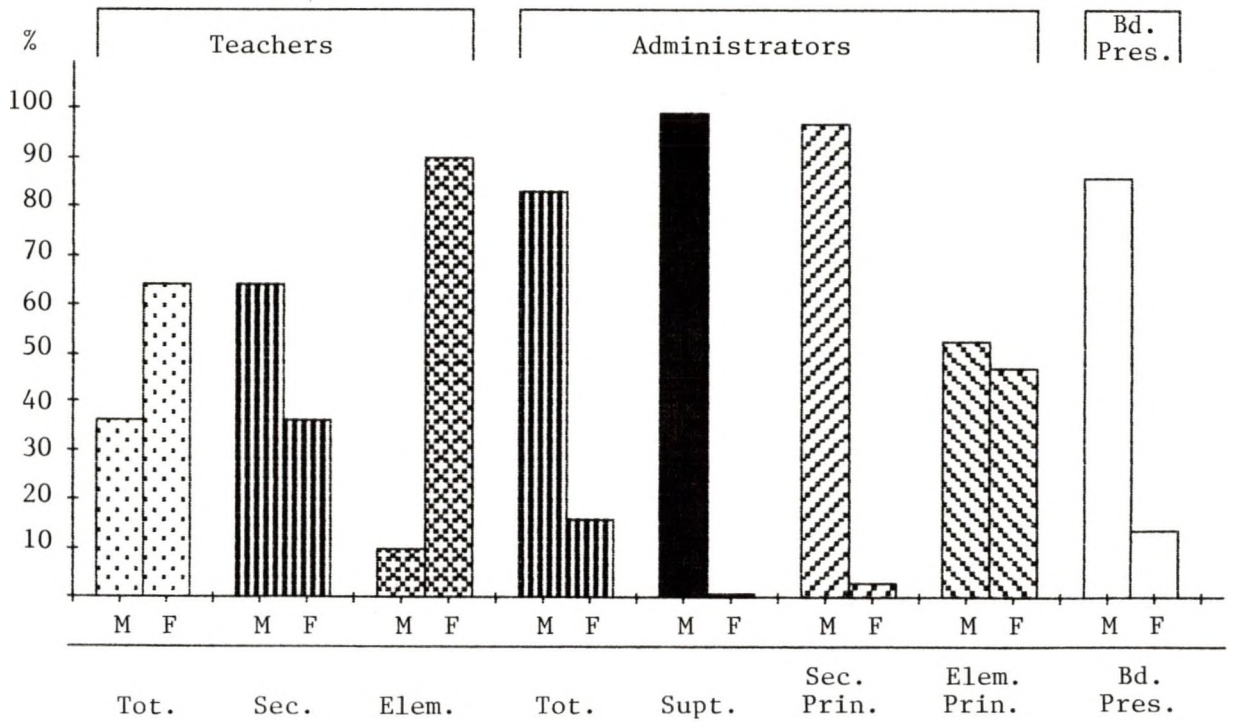

Fig. 1. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Sex.

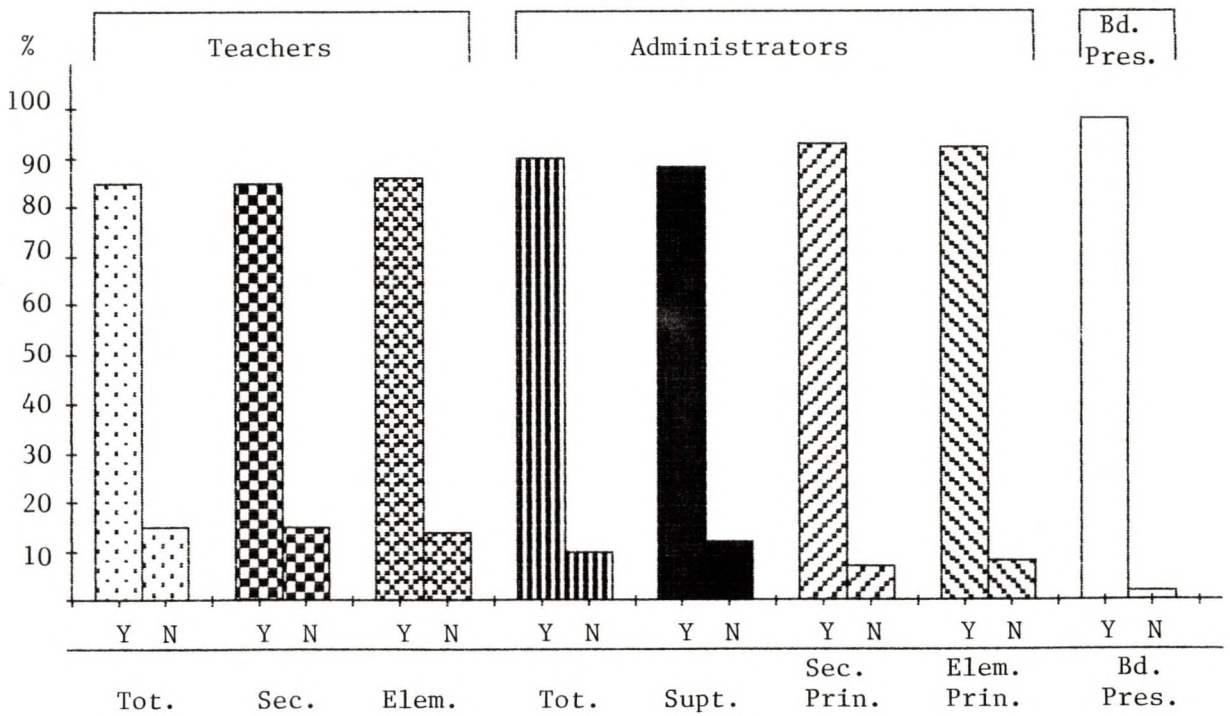

Fig. 2. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: North Dakota native.

elementary teachers were natives of the state and 85% of the secondary teachers were natives.

Within the groups of administrators, 90% indicated they were North Dakota natives. The percentages were slightly higher for secondary and elementary principals, 93% and 92% respectively.

The percentage of school board presidents who were North Dakota natives was even more pronounced. Within this group of respondents, 98% were North Dakota natives.

Years Lived in a Small Town or Rural Setting

As seen in table 2 and figure 3, extremes were noted among the three responding groups as to how many years the respondents had lived in a small town or rural setting. Each of the groups indicated that more than 80% of them had spent more than fifteen years in a small town or rural setting. Of the teachers, 83% had lived in a small town or rural setting for over fifteen years. For the administrators it was 87%, and for the school board presidents it was 99%.

Years Lived in Current Community

As seen in table 2 and figure 4, a very similar pattern of percentages was noted between the teacher and administrator groups for the number of years the respondents had lived in their current community. Higher percentages were noted in the 1-5 year and over 15 year categories. Approximately 40% of these two groups had lived 1-5 years in their current community. Close to 30% of the teachers and administrators had lived over 15 years in their current community.

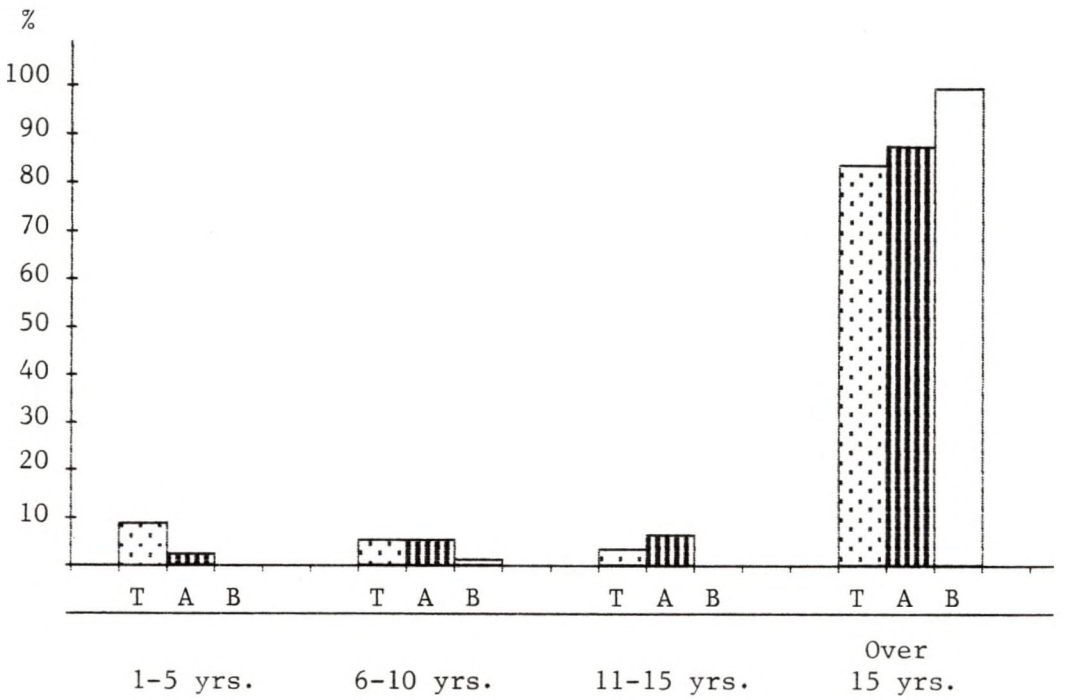

Fig. 3. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Years lived in a small town or rural setting.

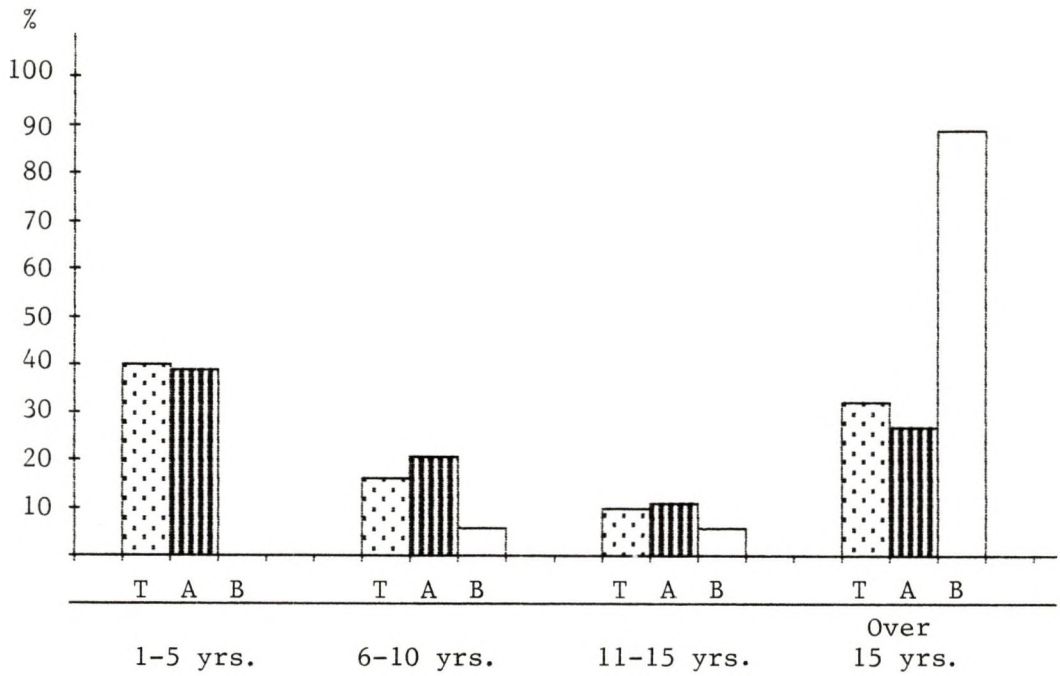

Fig. 4. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Years lived in current community.

Table 2 and figure 4 illustrate a clustering for the school board presidents. There were 88% of the school board presidents having lived over 15 years in their current community.

Teaching in the Community in Which the Respondent Was Raised (Teachers Only)

Table 3 and figure 5 indicate that only 13% of the secondary teachers were teaching in the community in which they were raised. A somewhat higher percentage (24%) was noted for elementary teachers.

Spouse from Current Community (Teachers Only)

Table 3 and figure 5 indicate that few secondary teachers (13%) had spouses who were from the community in which they were teaching. Among elementary teachers the percentage was higher (38%).

Teaching Level (Teachers Only)

Table 3 and figure 6 indicate that among the teacher respondents 52% were elementary teachers and 47% were secondary teachers. This signifies a relatively balanced distribution of secondary and elementary teachers among the responding teachers.

Years as an Elementary Teacher (Teachers Only)

As noted in table 3 and figure 7, only 7% of the secondary teachers had any elementary teaching experience. The elementary teachers had their highest percentage (32%) of teaching experience in the 1-5 year category. However, there were no wide variations noted among any of the categories.

TABLE 3

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE:
BACKGROUND INFORMATION FOR TEACHERS ONLY

Variable	Secondary N	Secondary %	Elementary N	Elementary %
E. Are you teaching in the community in which you were raised?				
Yes	30	13	61	24
No	202	87	193	75
F. If married, is your spouse originally from this community?				
Yes	30	13	98	38
No	152	65	112	44
G. Present teaching level:				
Elementary (K-8)	0	0	257	52
Secondary	233	47	0	0
Other	0	0	0	0
H. Years as an elementary teacher:				
0	35	15	2	1
1-5	11	5	81	32
6-10	4	2	57	22
11-15	1	0	43	17
Over 15	1	0	65	25
I. Years as a secondary teacher:				
0	1	0	34	13
1-5	96	41	17	7
6-10	57	24	9	4
11-15	39	17	1	0
Over 15	38	16	5	2
J. Years as a teacher in this school:				
0	3	1	2	1
1-5	130	56	121	47
6-10	43	18	40	16
11-15	18	8	26	10
Over 15	21	9	43	17

TABLE 3--Continued

Variable	Secondary N	Secondary %	Elementary N	Elementary %
K. What is the highest degree you have earned?				
Less than Bachelors	0	0	0	0
Bachelors	204	88	245	95
Masters	28	12	11	4
Doctorate	0	0	0	0
Other	1	0	1	0

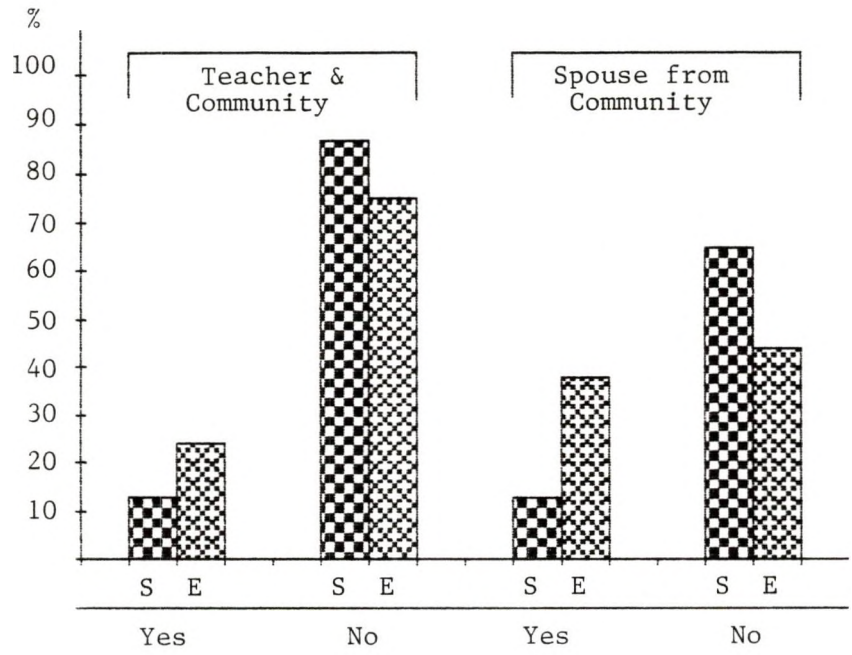

Fig. 5. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Teaching in the community in which the respondent was raised; spouse from current community.

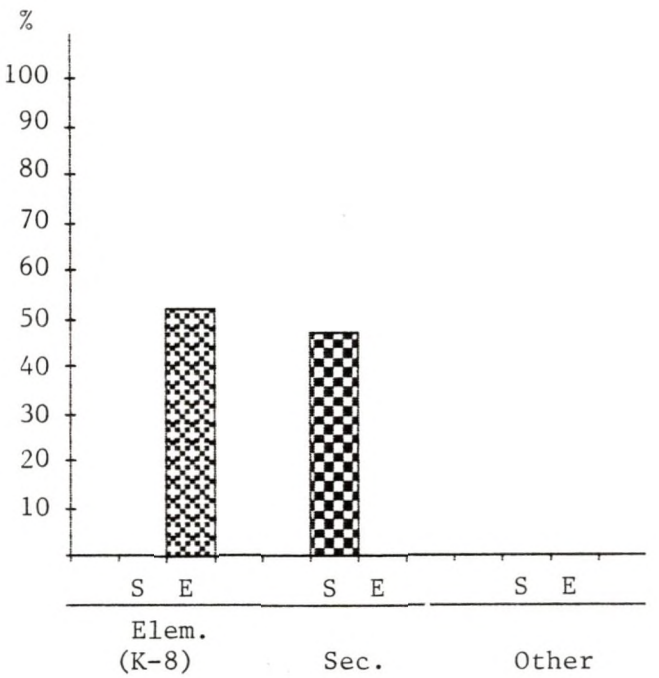

Fig. 6. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Teaching level.

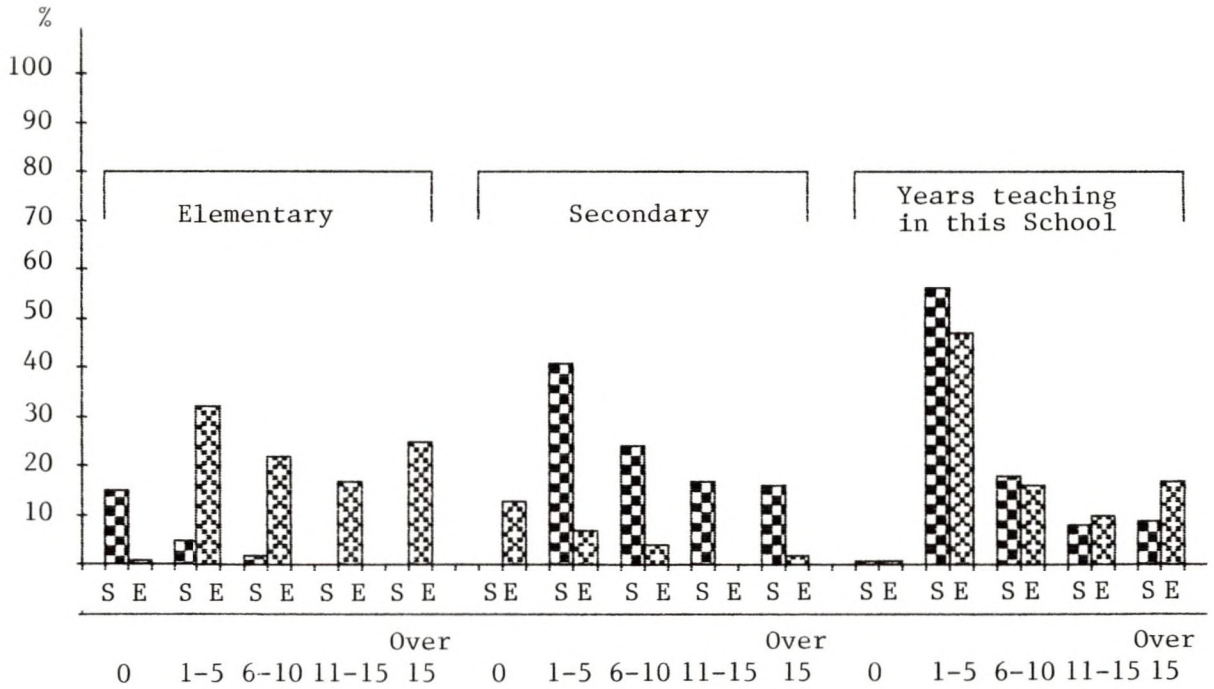

Fig. 7. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Years as an elementary teacher; years as a secondary teacher; years as a teacher in this school.

Years as a Secondary Teacher (Teachers Only)

As noted in table 3 and figure 7, 13% of the elementary teachers had had experience at secondary teaching. Of the responding secondary teachers the highest percentage (41%) reported having taught 1-5 years as a secondary teacher.

Years as a Teacher in This School (Teachers Only)

As noted in table 3 and figure 7, there was a similar pattern in the percentages between secondary and elementary teachers concerning the number of years they had taught in their current school. Highest percentages were noted in the 1-5 year category--56% for the secondary teachers and 47% for the elementary teachers.

Highest Degree Earned (Teachers Only)

As noted in table 3 and figure 8, only 4% of the elementary teachers had earned a degree beyond the bachelor's degree. A somewhat higher number of secondary teachers (12%) had an advanced degree.

Present Role (Administrators Only)

Table 4 and figure 9 summarize the percentages of administrators who were superintendents (43%), secondary principals (33%), and elementary principals (30%). Dual roles were served by some of the administrators. Due to the fact that dual roles were held by some of the administrators, there may have been confusion in responding to the questionnaire. As noted, 8% of the superintendents reported that they also served as elementary principals. The same was true for

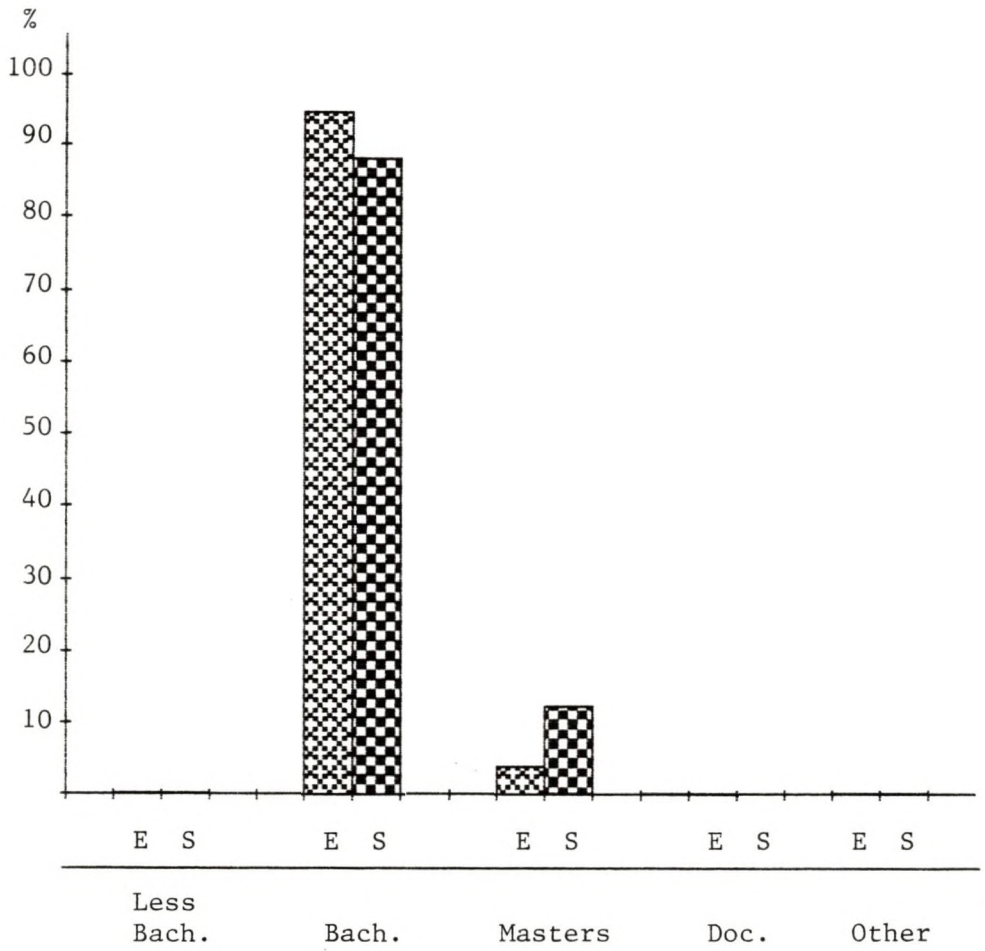

Fig. 8. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Highest degree earned.

TABLE 4

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE: BACKGROUND INFORMATION FOR ADMINISTRATORS ONLY

Variable	Superintendents N	Superintendents %	Secondary Principals N	Secondary Principals %	Elementary Principals N	Elementary Principals %	Total N	Total %
E. Check your present role description:								
Superintendent	113	43	0	0	9	8	113	43
Secondary principal	0	0	86	33	8	8	186	33
Elementary principal	9	12	8	10	80	30	80	30
F. Administrative credential held for which level of school?								
Level I	51	45	16	19	9	12	70	27
Level II	12	11	33	38	18	23	60	23
Level III	30	27	30	35	39	50	97	37
G. Years as an elementary teacher:								
0	65	58	18	21	1	1	34	13
1-5	16	14	8	9	14	18	40	15
6-10	25	22	3	3	8	10	17	6
11-15	6	5	0	0	12	15	13	5
Over 15	1	1	2	2	35	45	37	14

TABLE 4--Continued

Variable	Superintendents N	%	Secondary Principals N	%	Elementary Principals N	%	Total N	%
H. Years as a secondary teacher:								
0	2	2	1	1	11	14	13	5
1-5	26	23	10	12	3	4	36	14
6-10	38	34	27	31	1	1	66	25
11-15	15	13	21	24	5	6	36	14
Over 15	16	14	26	30	7	9	45	17
I. Years as a teacher in this school:								
0	28	25	6	7	1	1	35	13
1-5	26	23	27	31	20	26	66	25
6-10	9	8	24	28	13	17	46	17
11-15	4	4	10	12	10	13	23	9
Over 15	6	5	11	13	23	29	37	14
J. Years as an administrator in this school:								
0	2	2	1	0	2	3	4	2
1-5	60	53	47	55	44	56	142	54
6-10	28	25	23	27	20	26	69	26
11-15	8	7	7	8	3	4	18	7
Over 15	15	13	8	9	7	9	26	10

TABLE 4--Continued

Variable	Superintendents N	%	Secondary Principals N	%	Elementary Principals N	%	Total N	%
K. What is the highest degree you have earned?								
Less than Bachelors	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Bachelors	0	0	49	57	50	64	97	37
Masters	98	87	33	38	21	27	141	54
Specialist	7	8	0	0	1	1	8	3
Doctorate	6	5	0	0	0	0	6	2
Other	0	0	3	3	0	0	3	1
L. Percent of time spent in administrative role:								
0-24	3	3	6	7	38	49	47	18
25-74	17	15	58	67	23	29	93	35
75-100	93	82	22	26	17	22	120	46
M. Other professional positions currently held:								
Classroom teacher	55	49	73	85	63	81	181	69
Coach	14	12	32	37	12	15	53	20
Other	14	12	14	16	14	18	36	14

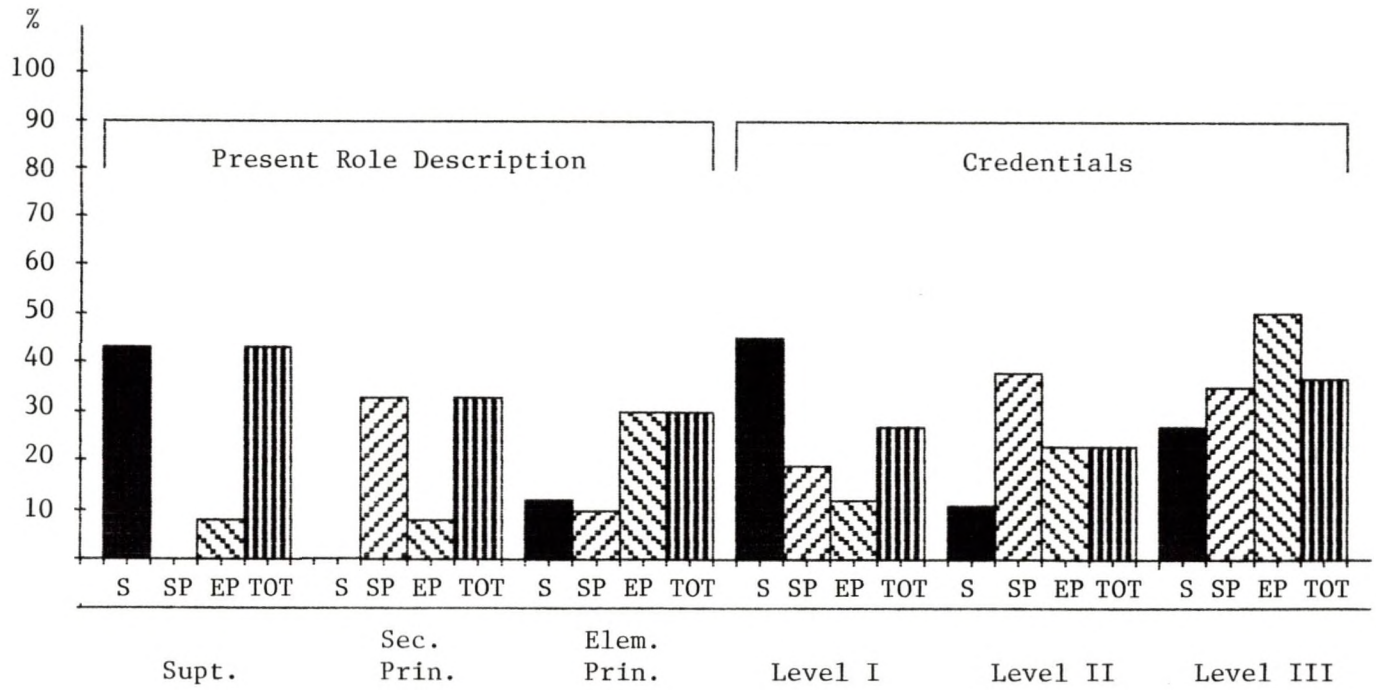

Fig. 9. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Present role; administrative credential level.

secondary principals; 8% of them reported that they also served as elementary principals. However, 10% of the elementary principals indicated that they also served as secondary principals. Likewise, 8% of the superintendents had roles as elementary principals, but 12% of the elementary principals had the dual role of superintendent. The data may be influenced by these dual role responsibilities, so a discrepancy is noted in the percentages recorded. In addition, because many administrators had dual roles, there is the possibility that a few of the respondents could have completed two questionnaires--one for each of their administrative roles.

Administrative Credential Level (Administrators Only)

As noted in table 4 and figure 9, nearly half of the responding superintendents (45%) had Level I credentials. Level II credentials were held by 11% of the superintendents and Level III credentials by 27%. Among secondary principals the highest percentages were noted for Level II (38%) and Level III (35%). Half of the responding elementary principals (50%) had Level III credentials.

There was an ascending order noted between the administrative position and the credential level held. The higher the administrative level the higher the percentage of Level I credentials held. Level I credentials were held by 45% of the superintendents, 19% of the secondary principals, and 12% of the elementary principals.

The highest percentage of Level II credentials was held by the secondary principals (38%). For the elementary principals, 23% had Level II credentials.

The elementary principals (50%) held the highest percentage of Level III credentials. For the secondary principals, 35% of them had Level III credentials.

Years as an Elementary Teacher (Administrators Only)

As noted in table 4 and figure 10, 42% of the superintendents had had experience as an elementary teacher. For secondary principals the percentage was 14%. For the elementary principals, 98% had had elementary teaching experience.

Years as a Secondary Teacher (Administrators Only)

As noted in table 4 and figure 10, superintendents (84%) and secondary principals (97%) had had significantly more experience as secondary teachers than had elementary principals (20%). Of the superintendents 57% had had 1-10 years of secondary teaching experience.

It should be noted that 54% of the secondary principals had had 11-15 years of secondary teaching experience. Clearly secondary principals had the highest percentage of years as a secondary teacher.

Years as a Teacher in This School (Administrators Only)

As noted in table 4 and figure 11, the highest percentages for the number of years the administrator had served as a teacher in that school were found in the 1-5 year (23%) category for superintendents, 1-5 (31%) and 6-10 (28%) year categories for secondary principals, and 1-5 (26%) and over 15 years (29%) for the elementary principals. Clearly the secondary and elementary principals had spent more years as a teacher in their current school than had the superintendents.

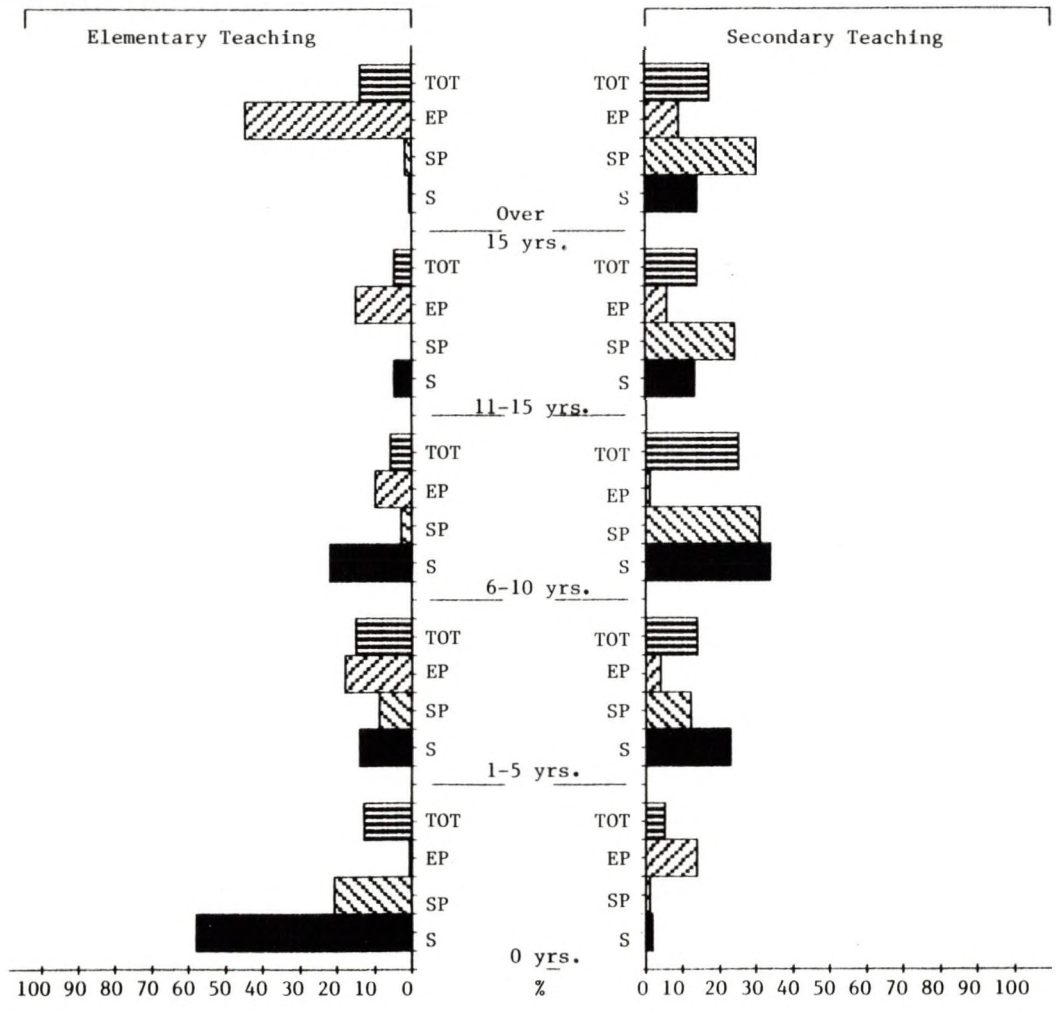

Fig. 10. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Years as an elementary teacher; years as a secondary teacher.

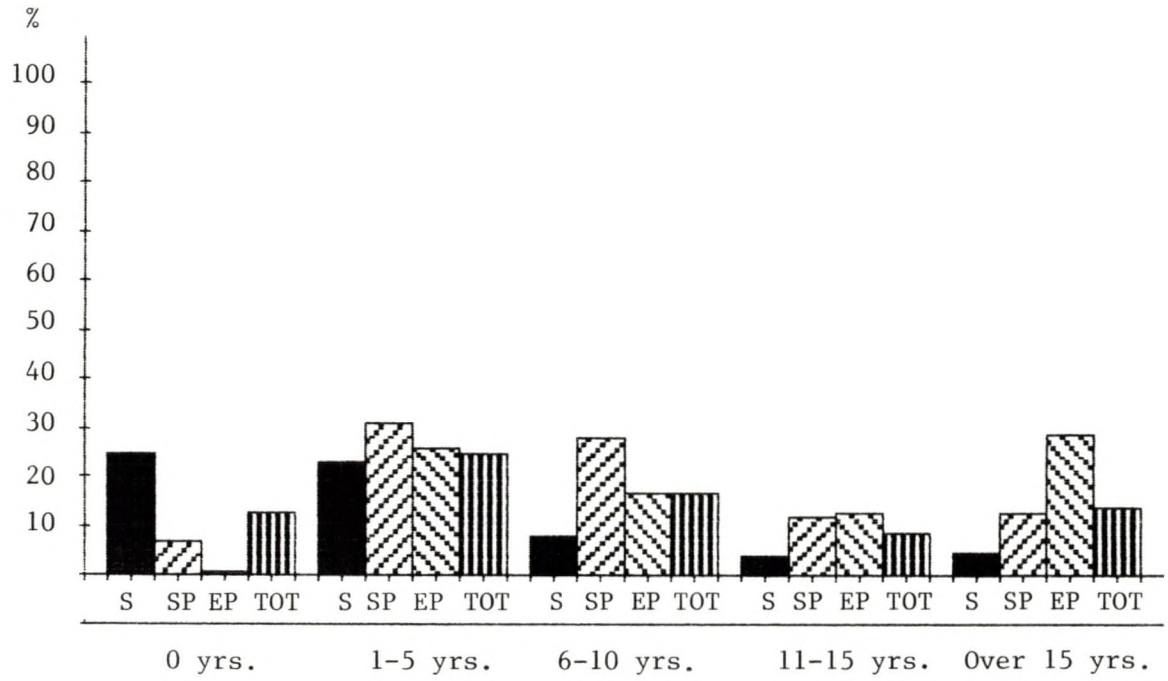

Fig. 11. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Years as a teacher in this school.

Years as an Administrator in This School (Administrators Only)

As noted in table 4 and figure 12, over half of each administrative group had spent from 1-5 years as an administrator in their current school: 53% of the superintendents, 55% of the secondary principals, and 56% of the elementary principals. Approximately 25% to 27% of each group had had from 6-10 years of experience as an administrator in their present school.

Highest Degree Earned (Administrators Only)

As noted in table 4 and figure 13, a rather large percentage of secondary (57%) and elementary (64%) principals had a bachelor's degree as the highest degree earned.

The percentage of administrators having earned a master's degree declined with the administrative level: 87% of the superintendents, 38% of the secondary principals, and 27% of the elementary principals. It should be noted that these percentages do not coincide with the percentages of administrators holding the various levels of administration credentials. This may be due to the fact that master's degrees were obtained in areas other than administration.

A specialist degree was earned by 8% of the superintendents and 1% of the elementary principals. There were no specialist degrees among the secondary principals.

As noted, 5% of the superintendents had received a doctorate. There were no doctorates among secondary or elementary principals. Of the total administrative group 5% had earned a degree beyond the master's degree.

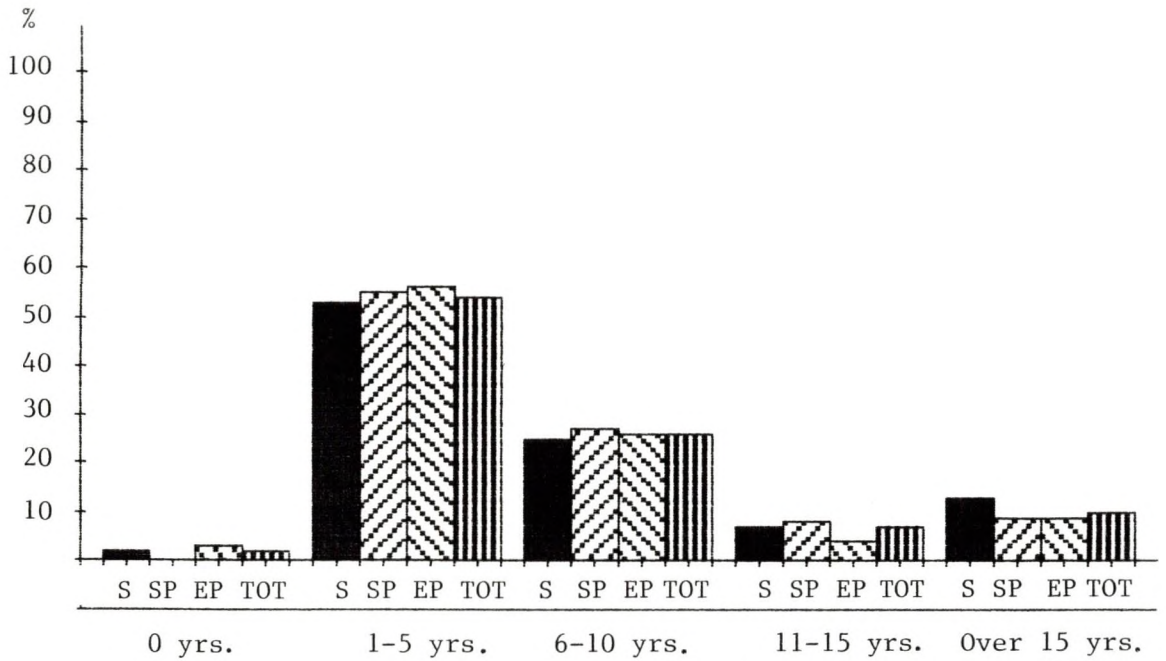

Fig. 12. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Years as an administrator in this school.

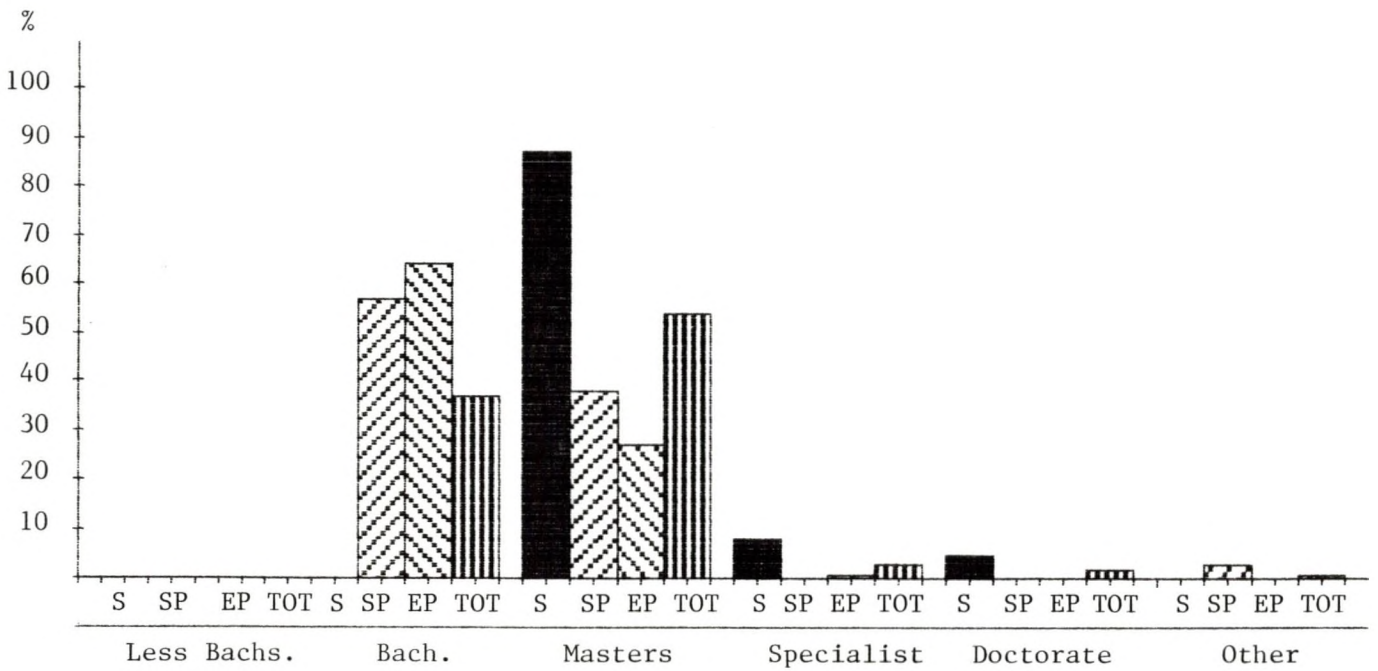

Fig. 13. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Highest degree earned.

Time Spent in Administrative Role (Administrators Only)

As shown in table 4 and figure 14, the higher the level of the administrative position the greater the percentage of time spent on administrative activities. Superintendents (82%) spent 75-100% of their time with administrative activities. The secondary principals (67%) spent 25-74% of their time with administrative activities, and the elementary principals (49%) spent 0-24% of their time with administrative duties.

Other Professional Positions Held (Administrators Only)

As noted in table 4 and figure 15, 49% of the superintendents were also classroom teachers. The percentages were noticeably higher for secondary principals (85%) and elementary principals (81%).

Coaching was noted as a position held by 12% of the superintendents, 37% of the secondary principals, and 15% of the elementary principals. On the average, 14% of the administrators had positions other than teacher or coach.

Raised in the Community (School Board Presidents Only)

As noted in table 5, 74% of the school board presidents were serving the school district of the community in which they were raised.

Years Served on School Board (School Board Presidents Only)

Table 5 and figure 16 indicate that 52% of the school board presidents had served over 6 years on the school board. An additional 34% had served 4-6 years, and 13% had served only 1-3 years.

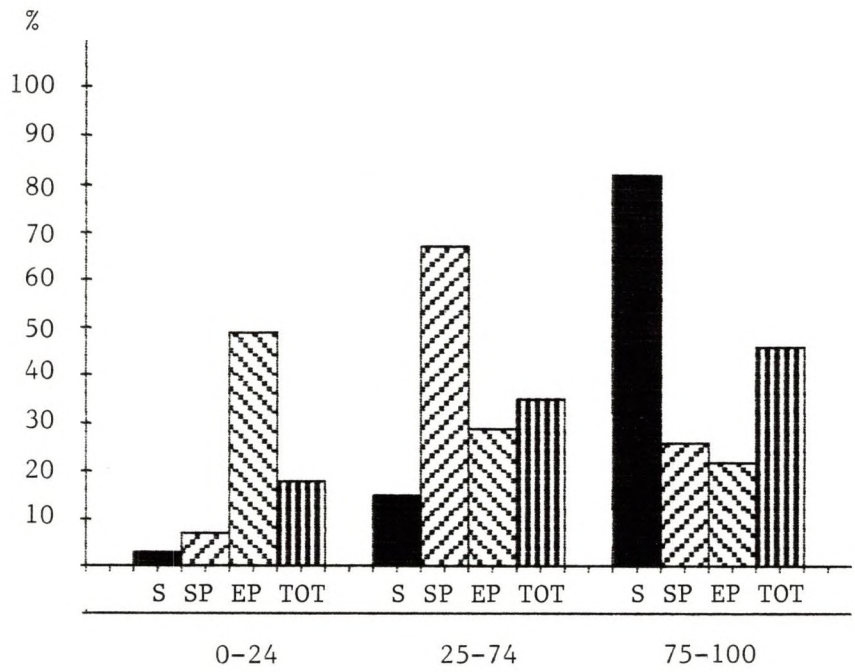

Fig. 14. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Time spent in administrative role.

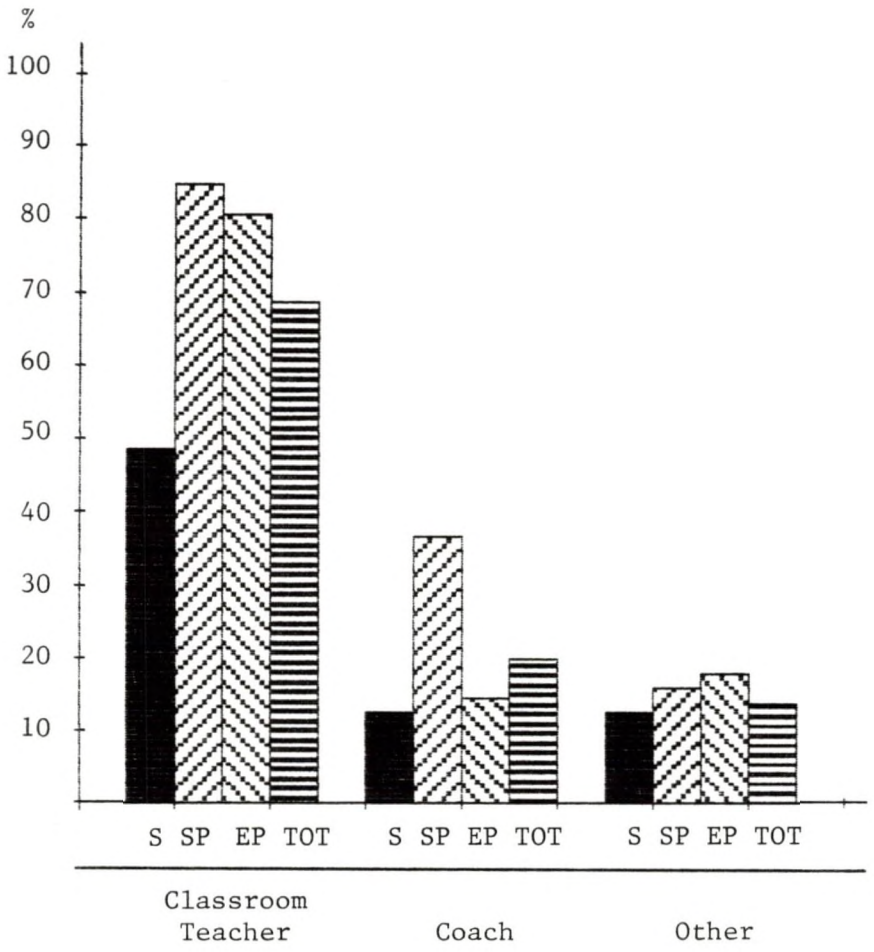

Fig. 15. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Other professional positions held.

TABLE 5

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE: BACKGROUND INFORMATION FOR SCHOOL BOARD PRESIDENTS ONLY

Variable	N	%
E. Is the district for which you are school board president the community in which you were raised?		
Yes	64	74
No	22	26
F. How many years have you served on the school board?		
1-3	11	13
4-6	29	34
Over 6	45	52
G. How many years have you served as the board president?		
1-3	66	77
4-6	11	13
Over 6	9	10
H. Which of the following indicates most closely your highest level of training?		
High school	35	41
Some college	22	26
College graduate	19	22
Other	5	6

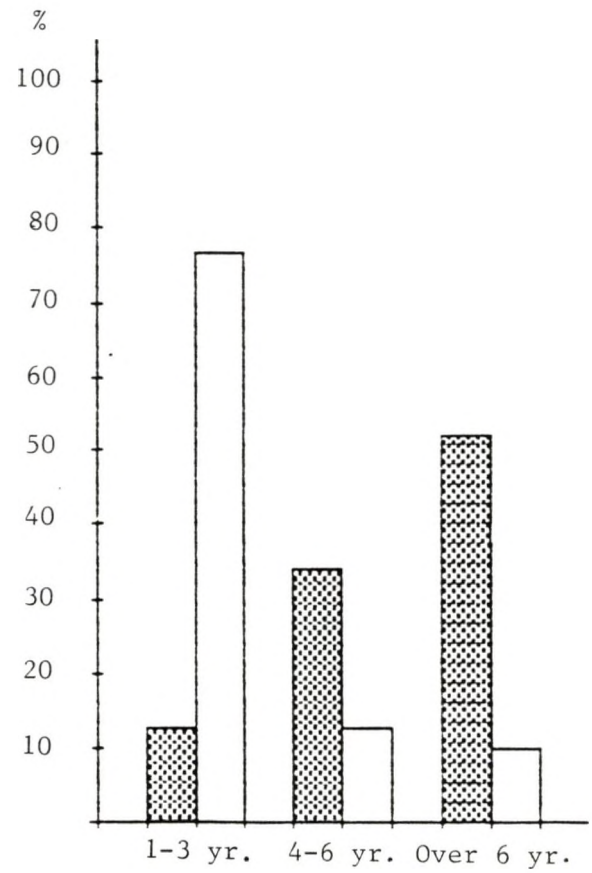

Fig. 16. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Years served on school board; years served as school board president.

Years Served as School Board President (School Board Presidents Only)

As noted in table 5 and figure 16, 77% of the school board presidents had served only 1-3 years as school board president. The remainder of the school board presidents had served 4 or more years in the capacity of president.

Highest Level of Training (School Board Presidents Only)

As noted in table 5, a high school education was indicated as the highest level of training received by 41% of the school board presidents. Some college education had been received by 26%, and an additional 22% were college graduates.

Summary of the "Typical" Respondent

Using the preceding background information, the researcher attempted to provide a capsule glimpse of the "typical" teacher, administrator, and school board president in the Level III schools of North Dakota.

A "typical" elementary teacher was female, was a North Dakota native, was not teaching in the community in which she had been raised, had taught 1-5 years in the present school, and had a bachelor's degree.

A "typical" secondary teacher was male, was a North Dakota native, was not teaching in the community in which he had been raised, had a spouse who was not from the community in which he was teaching, had had very little elementary teaching experience, had from 1-10 years of teaching experience, had taught 1-5 years in his present school, and had a bachelor's degree.

A "typical" elementary principal might have been female or male, a North Dakota native, had a Level III credential, had eleven or more years of elementary teaching experience, had very little (if any) secondary teaching experience, had been the elementary principal in the current school for 1-5 years, had a bachelor's degree, spent 0-24% of his or her time with administrative duties, and was also a classroom teacher.

A "typical" secondary principal was male, a North Dakota native, held a Level II or III credential, had little (if any) elementary teaching experience, had taught six or more years, had been an administrator for 1-5 years in that school, had a bachelor's degree, spent 25-74% of his time on administrative duties, and had classroom teaching duties in addition to the administrative responsibilities.

The "typical" superintendent was male, a North Dakota native, held a Level I credential, may have had some elementary teaching experience but primarily had a secondary teaching background, had been an administrator for 1-5 years in the current school, had a master's degree, spent 75-100% of his time with administrative responsibilities, and had classroom teaching as a professional duty in addition to the administrative responsibilities.

The "typical" school board president was male, a North Dakota native, had lived over 15 years in a small town or rural setting, had lived over 15 years in the current community, had been raised in the community for which he was serving as school board president, had over six years of experience on the school board, had served 1-3 years as the school board president, and had at least a high school educational background.

Current Practices

The current practices section of the questionnaire contained questions designed to obtain information concerning the nature of the supervision/evaluation programs that were currently being practiced in the Level III schools. All of the questions in this section were identical for teachers, administrators, and school board presidents.

This section presented data concerning those who had the responsibility for supervision/evaluation, methods employed, frequency of observations, kinds of records kept, and reasons for and satisfaction with the supervision/evaluation program.

Person Primarily Responsible for Supervision/Evaluation (Total Population)

As noted in table 6 and figure 17, a similar pattern exists in the data across the three groups of respondents. In each of the three responding groups, the percentages were highest for the superintendent as the person who had the primary responsibility for conducting teacher supervision/evaluation. The teachers (37%) and administrators (36%) responded very similarly. Nearly half of the school board presidents (49%) identified the superintendent as the person primarily responsible for teacher supervision/evaluation.

The responsibility for teacher supervision/evaluation generally declined with each administrative level as indicated by each of the responding groups. However, the teachers (36%) indicated that the secondary principal had very nearly as much responsibility for teacher supervision/evaluation as did the superintendent.

TABLE 6

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TOTAL POPULATION: CURRENT PRACTICES RELATED TO THE PERSON(S) RESPONSIBLE FOR SUPERVISION/EVALUATION AND THEIR EDUCATION OR TRAINING IN SUPERVISION/EVALUATION

Variable	Teachers		Administrators		School Board Presidents	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
N. In your building, who has primary responsibility for conducting teacher supervision/evaluation?						
Elementary principal	115	22	30	11	2	2
Secondary principal	186	36	56	21	12	14
Superintendent	193	37	95	36	42	49
Do not know	5	1	0	0	0	0
Other	2	0	2	1	2	2
O. Have you received any education or training in a supervision/evaluation process?						
Yes	161	31	231	88	29	34
No	350	68	29	11	56	65
P. If YES to the above question, what was the nature of your education or training?						
Graduate course(s)	107	21	204	72	2	2
Supervision/evaluation workshop	70	14	111	42	16	19
Convention topic	29	6	75	29	16	19
Personal reading	43	8	90	34	17	20
Other	10	2	10	4	2	2

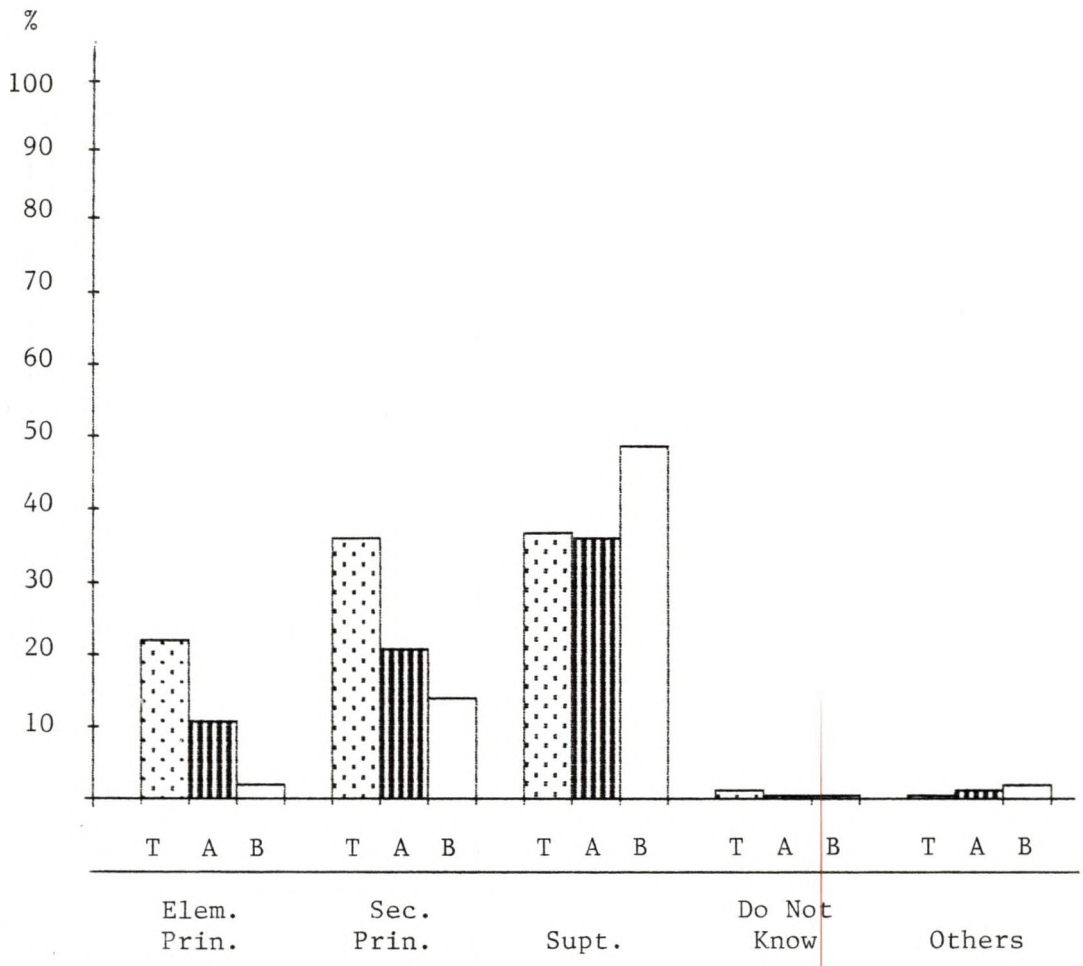

Fig. 17. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Person primarily responsible for supervision/evaluation.

Education or Training in a Supervision/Evaluation Process (Total Population)

As shown in table 6 and figure 18, 31% of the teachers and 34% of the school board presidents had received training in a supervision/evaluation process. Of the administrators, 88% had received this education or training.

Nature of Education or Training in Supervision/Evaluation (Total Population)

As noted in table 6 and figure 19, 21% of the teachers and 72% of the administrators had received education or training in a supervision/evaluation process primarily through a graduate course. Ranking second, percentage-wise, for both groups was a supervision/evaluation workshop for teachers (14%) and administrators (42%). Other categories which received frequent responses from the administrators were convention topics (29%) and personal reading (34%).

Among school board presidents there was an almost equal distribution among the following categories regarding the education or training received in a supervision/evaluation process: a supervision/evaluation workshop (19%), a convention topic (19%), and personal reading (20%).

Methods Used in Supervision/Evaluation of Teachers (Total Population)

Table 7 and figure 20 indicate that all three of the population groups identified the same four methods with the greatest frequency. Listed in order of descending frequency, the methods identified were observation, post-observation, checklist, and pre-observation.

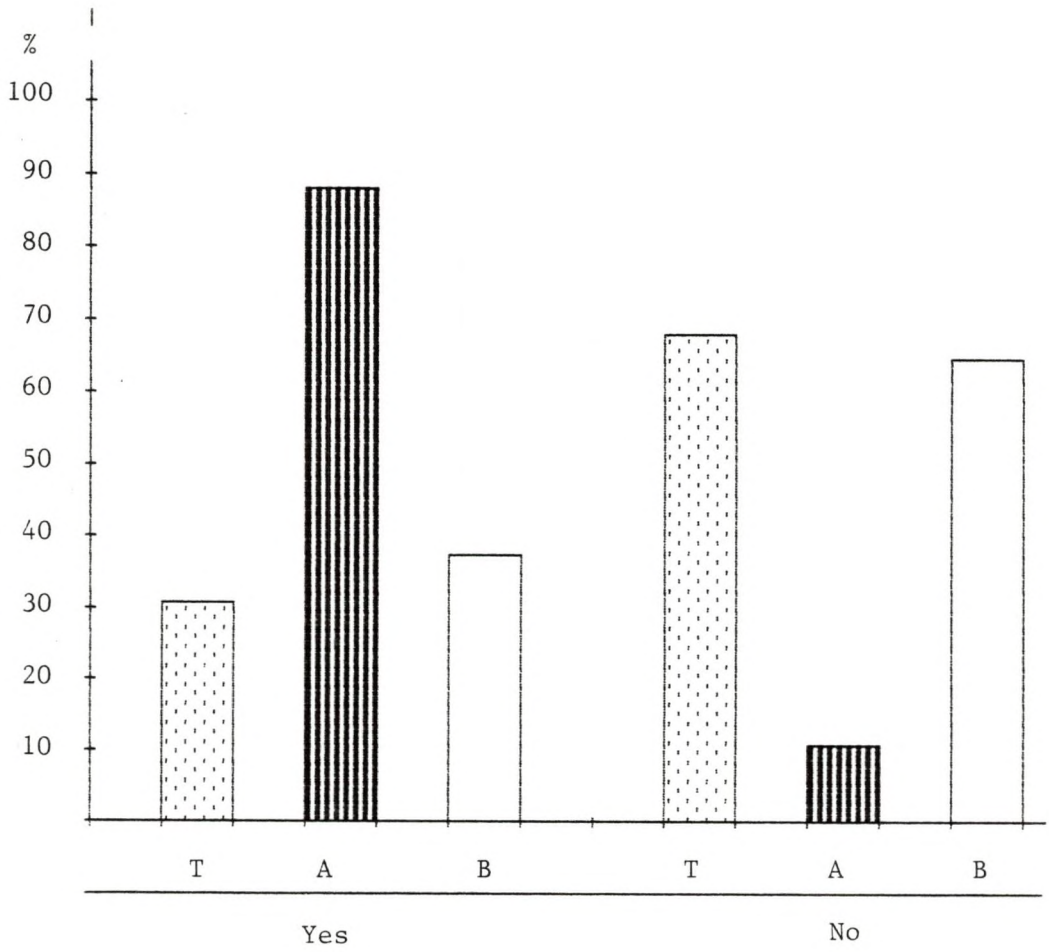

Fig. 18. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Education or training in a supervision/evaluation process.

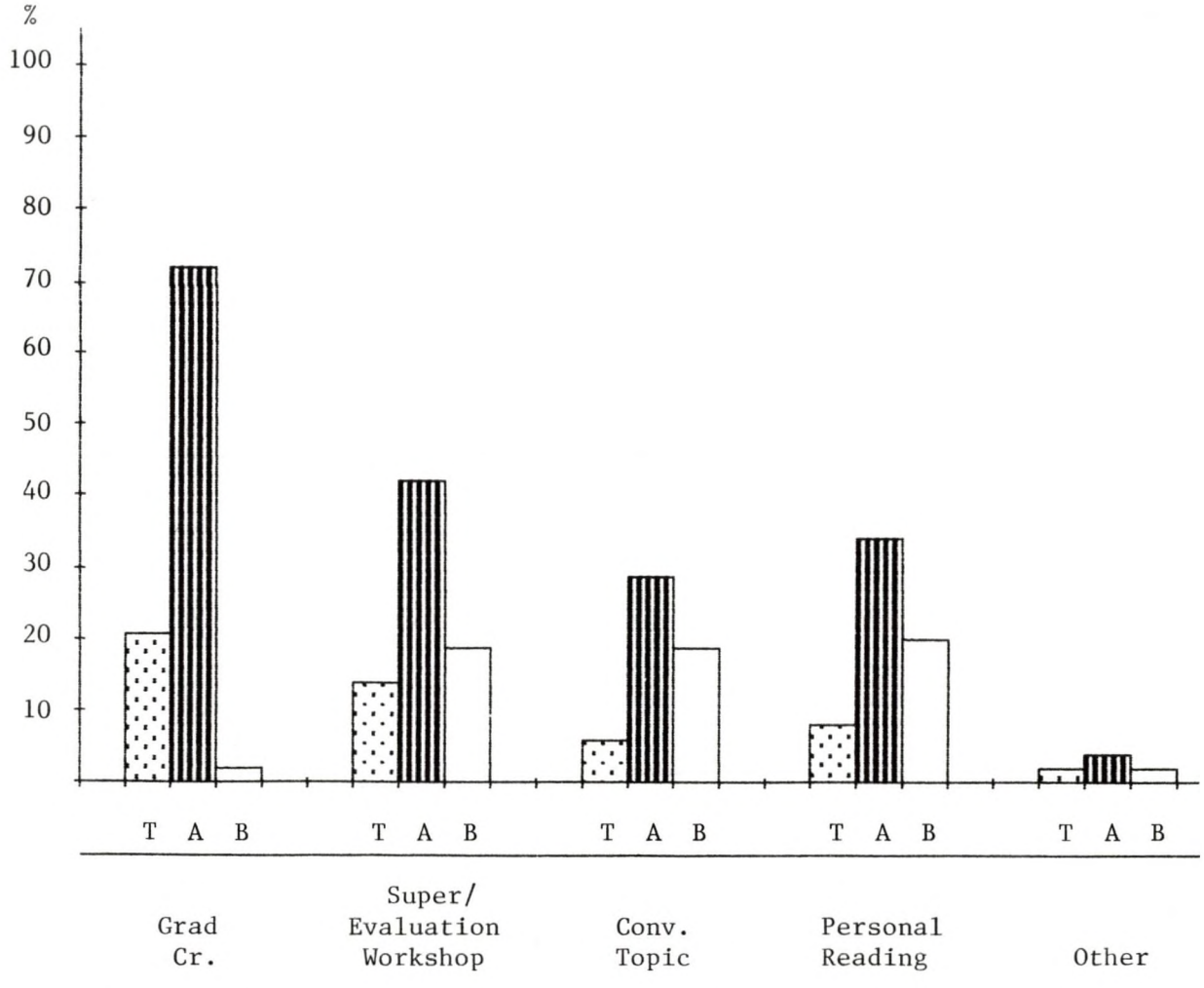

Fig. 19. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Nature of education or training in supervision/evaluation.

TABLE 7

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TOTAL POPULATION: CURRENT PRACTICES RELATED TO THE METHODS USED IN THE SUPERVISION/EVALUATION OF TEACHERS

Variable	Teachers		Administrators		School Board Presidents	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Q. Which of the following methods, if any, is your school using in the supervision/evaluation of teachers?						
Self-evaluation by teachers	78	15	65	25	5	6
Checklist	183	35	146	56	28	33
Audio tape recording	6	1	6	2	0	0
Video tape recording	3	1	17	6	0	0
Student evaluations	19	4	20	8	6	7
Pre-observation conference	86	17	100	38	25	29
Observation	433	84	233	89	67	78
Post-observation conference	310	60	197	75	39	45
Other	8	2	15	6	2	2
Do not know	25	5	0	0	4	5

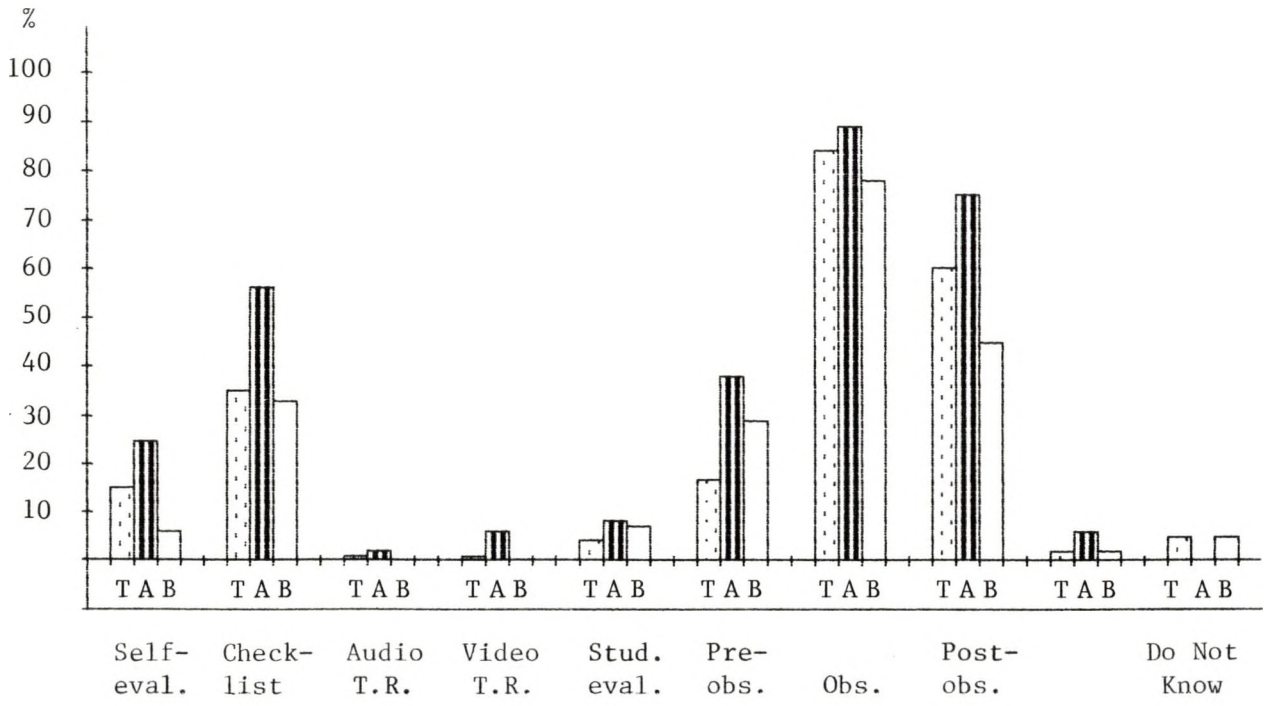

Fig. 20. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire: Methods used in supervision/evaluation of teachers.

Audio and video tape recording, student evaluations, and other methods were identified with frequencies of less than 10% for each group. It should be noted that 5% of the teachers and 5% of the school board presidents did not know which, if any, of the supervision/evaluation methods was used. Notable was the fact that although 38% of the administrators identified a pre-observation conference as a method (process) employed, only 17% of the teachers identified this method (process)--a percentage of less than half that of the administrators.

Frequency of Teacher Observations (Total Population)

As noted in table 8 and figure 21, two observations per year were identified with the highest frequency for each of the three groups: 42% of the teachers, 56% of the administrators, and 45% of the school board presidents. The next most frequently identified category for each of the three groups was that of one observation per year. One and two observations a year accounted for 74% of the teacher responses, 75% of the administrator responses, and 64% of the school board president responses. There were 7% of the teachers and 7% of the school board presidents who did not know how often teacher observations were conducted.

Supervision/Evaluation Observations Should Be Announced Beforehand

As shown in table 8 and figure 22, there was an almost equal split for both teachers and administrators as to whether or not teachers should know beforehand when an observation was to be conducted.

TABLE 8

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TOTAL POPULATION: CURRENT PRACTICES RELATED TO THE NUMBER OF TEACHER OBSERVATIONS CONDUCTED AND WHETHER THE OBSERVATIONS ARE ANNOUNCED BEFOREHAND AND A TIME AGREED UPON

Variable	Teachers N	Teachers %	Administrators N	Administrators %	School Board Presidents N	School Board Presidents %
R. How often are teacher observations conducted?						
Never	14	3	2	1	0	0
One/year	168	32	49	19	16	19
Two/year	216	42	148	56	39	45
Three/year	35	7	21	8	13	15
Other	38	7	16	6	5	6
Do not know	34	7	3	1	6	7
S. Do you believe teachers should know beforehand when an observation is going to be conducted?						
Yes	258	50	118	45	15	17
No	236	46	115	44	14	74
T. In your district are the supervision/evaluation visits of the administrator announced beforehand to the teachers?						
Always	121	23	71	27	6	5
Sometimes	273	53	161	61	34	40
Never	79	15	19	7	19	22
Do not know	30	6	4	2	22	26
U. If YES to the above, is a time agreed upon for the observation?						
Always	105	26	70	30	3	7
Sometimes	193	49	118	51	15	37
Never	41	10	15	19	2	5
Do not know	24	6	2	1	12	30

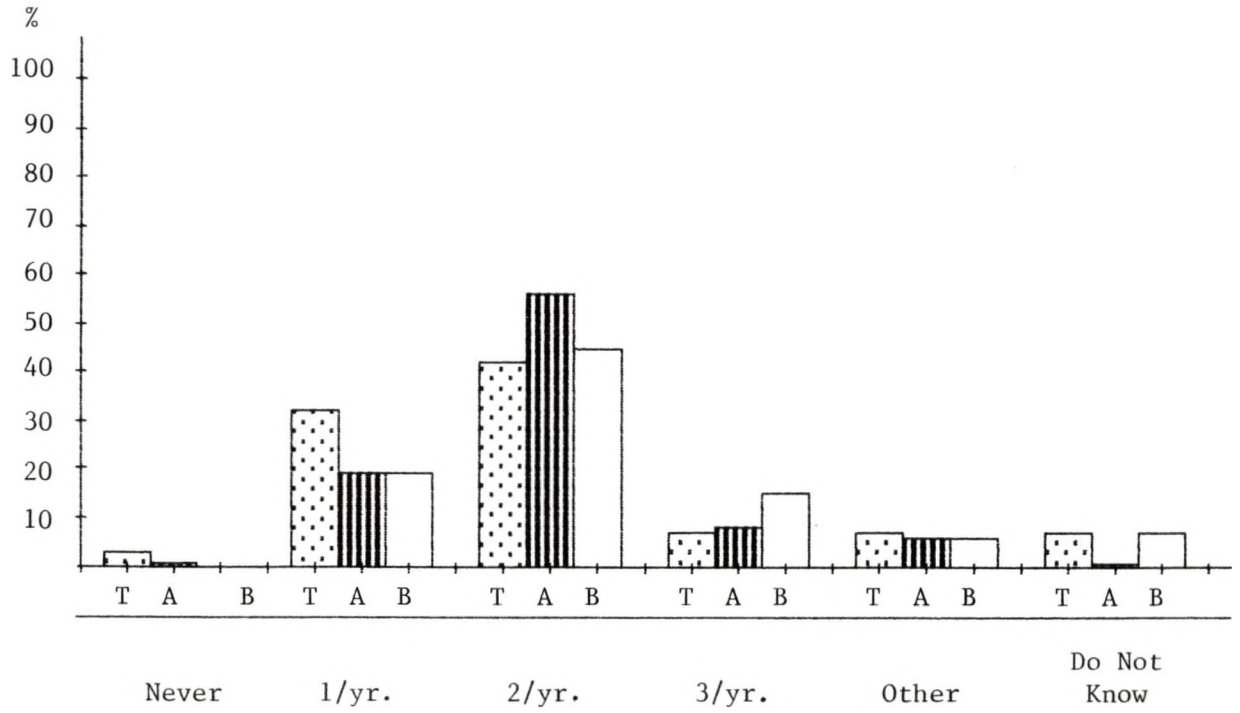

Fig. 21. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire for the total population: Frequency of teacher observations.

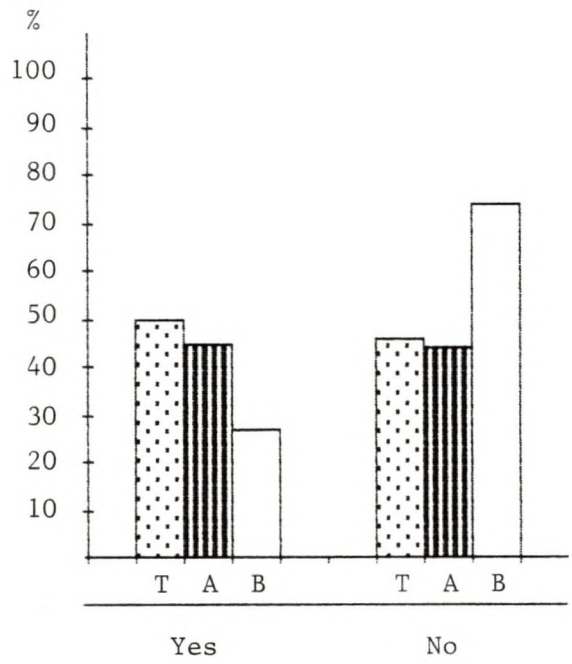

Fig. 22. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire for the total population: Supervision/evaluation observations should be announced beforehand.

However, the vast majority of school board presidents (74%) indicated that teachers should not know beforehand when an observation was to be conducted.

Supervision/Evaluation Observations Are Announced Beforehand

As shown in table 8 and figure 23, teachers and administrators were in close agreement as to whether supervision/evaluation visits were always or sometimes announced beforehand in their districts. A majority of the teachers (53%) and administrators (61%) said the visits were sometimes announced in their districts. A much smaller percentage of teachers (23%) and administrators (27%) reported that the visits were always announced. More school board presidents (22%) than teachers (15%) or administrators (7%) said that visits were never announced in their districts. Some of the school board presidents (26%) did not know if the visits were announced beforehand.

Time Agreed Upon If Visits Announced (Total Population)

As shown in table 8 and figure 23, teachers and administrators were very much in agreement as to whether a time was agreed upon before an observation. For teachers, 26% indicated that a time was always agreed upon and 49% said a time was sometimes agreed upon. For administrators, 30% said a time was always agreed upon and 51% said that a time was sometimes arranged. The spread was wider in the "always" and "sometimes" categories for school board presidents. There were 7% who indicated that a time was always agreed upon and 37% who said a time was sometimes agreed upon. Of the teachers, 10% said a time was never agreed upon. Of the administrators, 19% said a

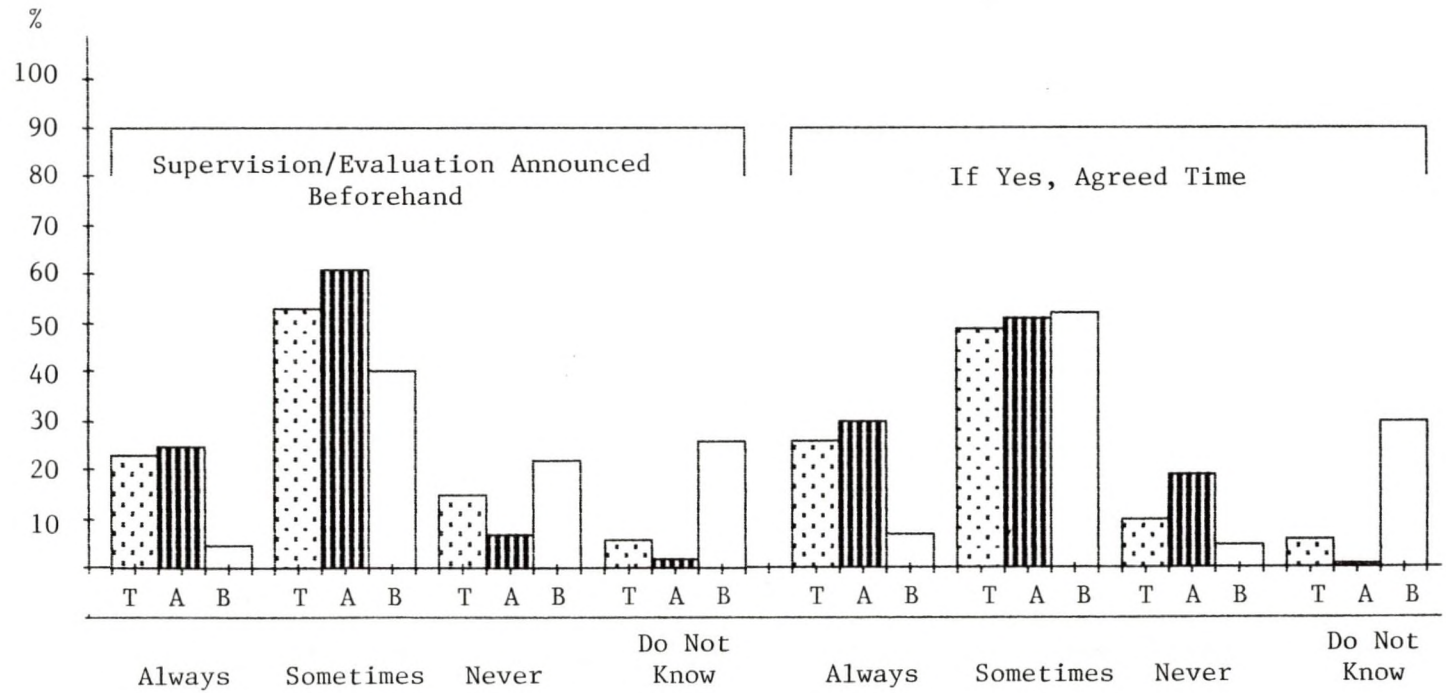

Fig. 23. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire for the total population: Supervision/evaluation observations are announced beforehand; time agreed upon if visits announced.

time was never agreed upon. Of the school board presidents 30% did not know if a time was agreed upon for an observation.

Records Kept on Observations
(Total Population)

As shown in table 9 and figure 24, the vast majority of teachers (73%), administrators (88%), and school board presidents (73%) indicated that records were kept on all observations. Of particular note was the category "do not know." In this category 22% of the teachers and 17% of the school board presidents responded.

Observation Records Used
(Total Population)

As shown in table 9 and figure 25, the frequency pattern across all three groups was very similar for most categories. The one exception was the use of a narrative description of the observation. The administrators (61%) group response to this category was considerably larger than that of teachers (31%) and school board presidents (36%). Other kinds of records kept which were cited most frequently were a formalized checklist and personal handwritten notes by the administrator. Lesson plans were also cited as a kind of record kept by 17% of the teachers, 19% of the administrators, and 12% of the school board presidents. It should be noted that 9% of the teachers did not know what kinds of records were used.

Teachers Preview Records
Before Placed in File
(Total Population)

As shown in table 9 and figure 26, two-thirds or more of each responding group indicated that teachers always do see (or hear) the records before they are placed in the file: 66% of the teachers, 88% of

TABLE 9

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TOTAL POPULATION: CURRENT PRACTICES RELATED TO WHETHER RECORDS ARE KEPT ON THE OBSERVATIONS, THE KINDS OF RECORDS KEPT, AND WHETHER THE RECORDS ARE SEEN BY TEACHERS BEFORE BEING FILED

Variable	Teachers		Administrators		School Board Presidents	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
V. Are records kept on all observations completed?						
Yes	379	73	231	88	63	73
No	14	3	19	7	4	5
Do not know	114	22	9	3	15	17
W. If records are kept, indicate which of the following records are used:						
Personal handwritten notes by the administrator	269	52	142	54	49	57
Formalized checklist	314	61	176	67	39	45
Narrative description of the observation	160	31	160	61	31	36
Lesson plan	89	17	51	19	10	12
Audio tape recording	3	1	1	0	0	0
Video tape recording	1	0	1	0	0	0
Student evaluations	4	1	6	2	1	1
Teacher self-evaluation	30	6	34	13	5	6
Other	5	1	7	3	4	5
Do not know	49	9	5	2	6	7

TABLE 9--Continued

Variable	Teachers N	Teachers %	Administrators N	Administrators %	School Board Presidents N	School Board Presidents %
X. Do teachers regularly see (or hear) the records before they are placed in the file?						
Always	340	66	231	88	62	72
Sometimes	83	16	16	6	4	5
Never	18	3	2	1	1	1
Do not know	53	10	4	2	16	19

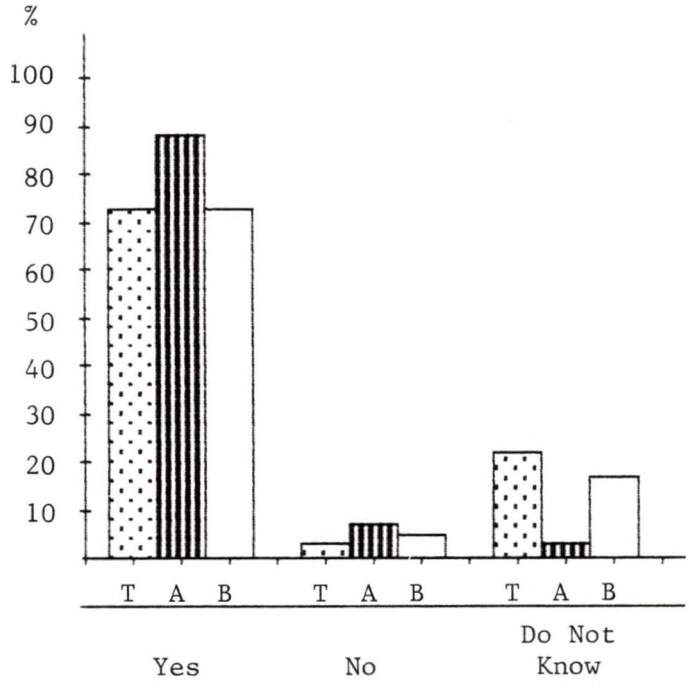

Fig. 24. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire for the total population: Records kept on observation.

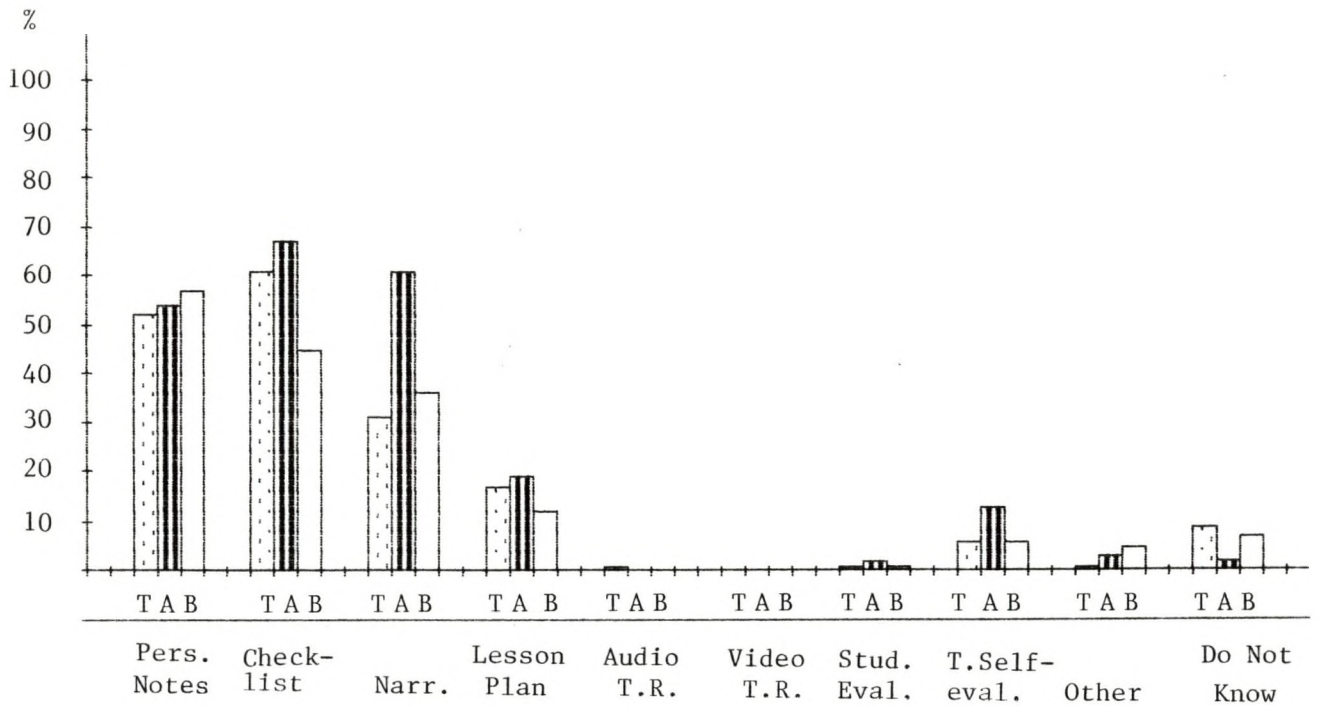

Fig. 25. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire for the total population: Observation records used.

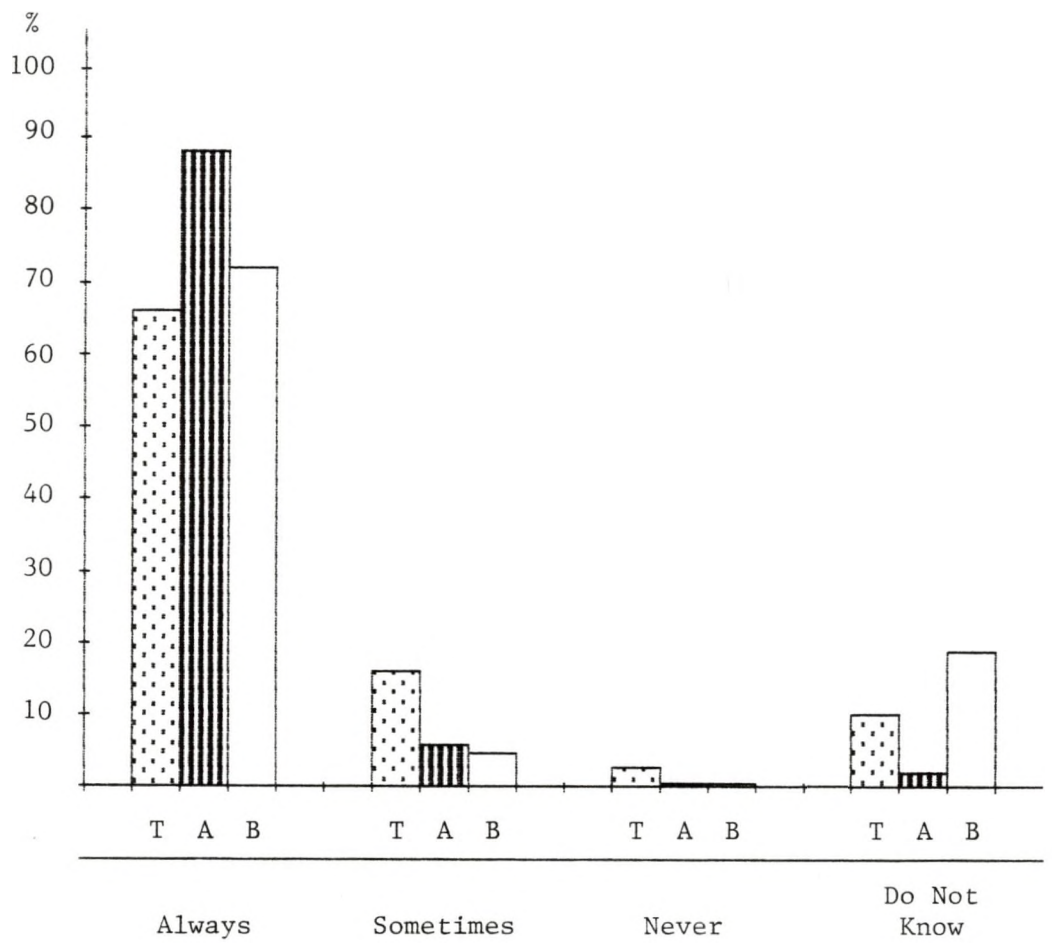

Fig. 26. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire for the total population: Teachers preview records before placed in file.

the administrators, and 72% of the school board presidents. In addition, a much smaller percentage of each group indicated that they sometimes saw the records before they were placed in the file. Of note was the fact that 10% of the teachers and 19% of the school board presidents did not know if teachers previewed the records kept on observations before they were placed in the file.

Usual Reasons for Teacher Supervision/Evaluation (Total Population)

As shown in table 10 and figure 27, a similar pattern existed in the percentages recorded across all three groups in the sample as to the usual reasons for conducting teacher supervision/evaluation. Receiving the highest percentages for all three groups was teacher supervision/evaluation being conducted as a means for teacher improvement. The following percentages were recorded: 60% of the teachers, 86% of the administrators, and 81% of the school board presidents. All three groups also reported a 50-60% response to two additional reasons for conducting teacher supervision/evaluation. These were that it was required by the school board and that it was something that the administrators felt should be done.

Teachers (36%) indicated less support for supervision/evaluation as a means for documenting in cases of dismissal. Administrators (54%) and school board presidents (53%) saw this reason to be of greater importance. All three groups gave considerably less support for teacher supervision/evaluation being conducted because it was required by law.

TABLE 10

SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TOTAL POPULATION: USUAL REASONS FOR CONDUCTING SUPERVISION/ EVALUATION AND THE REASONS SELECTED AS BEING MOST SIGNIFICANT PERSONALLY

Variable	Teachers		Administrators		School Board Presidents	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Y. What are the usual reasons for conducting teacher supervision/ evaluation?						
Required by law	87	17	26	10	6	7
Required by the school board	299	58	182	69	50	58
Means for documenting in cases of dismissal	184	36	143	54	46	53
Something the administrator feels should be done	256	50	147	56	41	48
Means for teacher improvement	308	60	227	86	70	81
Other	0	3	10	4	1	1
Z. Select the reason for conducting teacher supervision/evaluation most significant to you.						
Required by law	6	1	1	0	0	0
Required by the school board	36	7	8	3	1	1
Means for documenting in cases of dismissal	33	6	7	3	9	10
Something the administrator feels should be done	20	4	16	6	3	3
Means for teacher improvement	401	78	72	72	56	65
Other	3	1	0	0	0	0

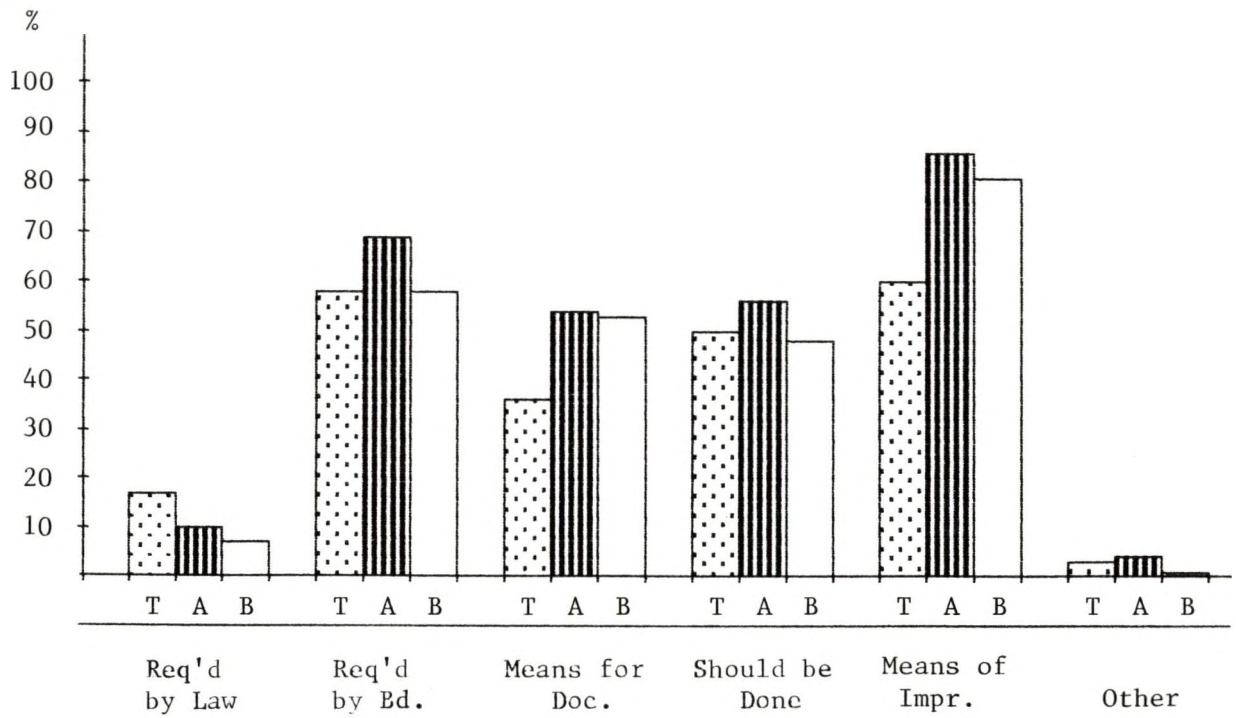

Fig. 27. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire for the total population: Usual reasons for teacher supervision/evaluation.

Personally Most Significant Reason for Supervision/ Evaluation (Total Population)

As noted in table 10 and figure 28, over 70% in each of the responding three groups identified supervision/evaluation as a means for teacher improvement as the most personally significant reason. Of note were the administrators (16%) who indicated the most significant reason for supervision/evaluation as being something the administration feels should be done. A number of the school board presidents (10%) identified supervision/evaluation as a means for documenting in cases of dismissal as the most significant reason for supervision/evaluation.

Perceived Teacher Satisfaction with the Present Supervision/ Evaluation Program (Total Population)

As noted in figure 29, the responses of each of the three groups could be identified in three categories: dissatisfied, satisfied, and well satisfied. In general, the population sample identified greater percentages of satisfaction than dissatisfaction with the teacher supervision/evaluation program currently in use. However, on the perceived satisfaction scale, the teachers' combined percentages of dissatisfaction (36%) provided a figure nearly twice that of administrators (19%) or school board presidents (18%). Since teachers as a group have more to lose or to gain from a supervision/evaluation program, they would be expected to be more likely to respond with dissatisfaction if such a program merited it.

Fig. 28. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire for the total population: Personally most significant reason for supervision/evaluation.

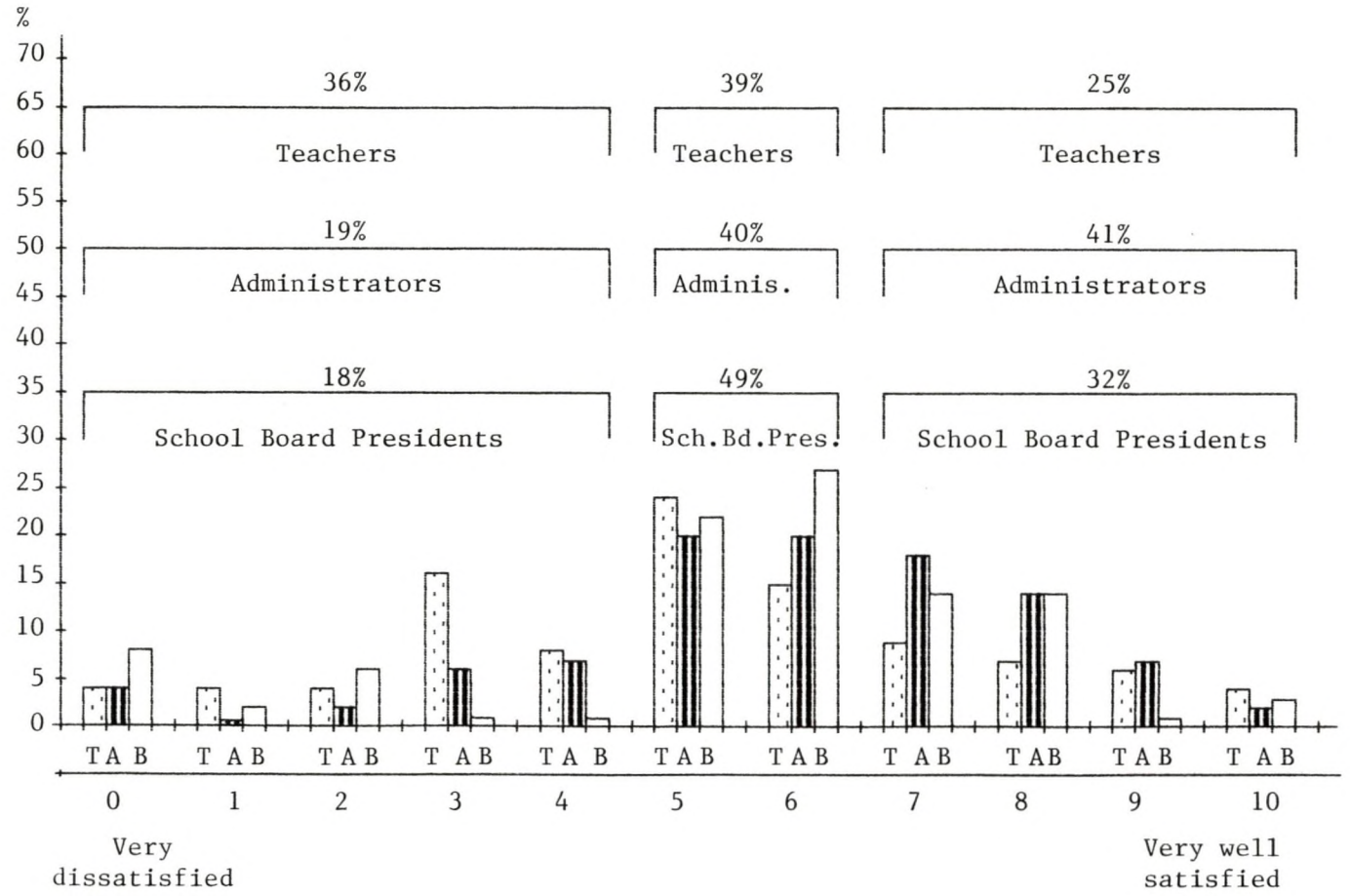

Fig. 29. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire for the total population: How satisfied are most of the teachers with the supervision/evaluation process presently used in your district?

Personal Satisfaction with Current Teacher Supervision/ Evaluation (Total Population)

As noted in figure 30, the responses of each of the three sample groups could again be defined in three categories: dissatisfied, satisfied, and well satisfied. Again, there clearly was more satisfaction than dissatisfaction noted. However, the administrators (31%) and school board presidents (36%) identified greater personal dissatisfaction than they had on the perceived satisfaction scale. All three groups of respondents were somewhat similar in their levels of satisfaction in each of the three general categories.

The final section of the questionnaire asked for candid individual observations regarding the problems which were seen as being unique to small school systems. In addition it asked for suggestions for ways to improve the current supervision/evaluation program. The responses to the observation/suggestion section of the questionnaire were then categorized and quantified.

Problems Unique to Small Schools: Observations

The final page of the research questionnaire provided the respondents with an opportunity to reflect and provide personal thoughts and ideas relative to the supervision/evaluation process being used in their school system. A total of 562 of the respondents elected to respond to one or both of the questions on this page. Their responses were divergent. However, there were several areas in which greater common interest and concern were expressed. The researcher attempted to categorize the responses.

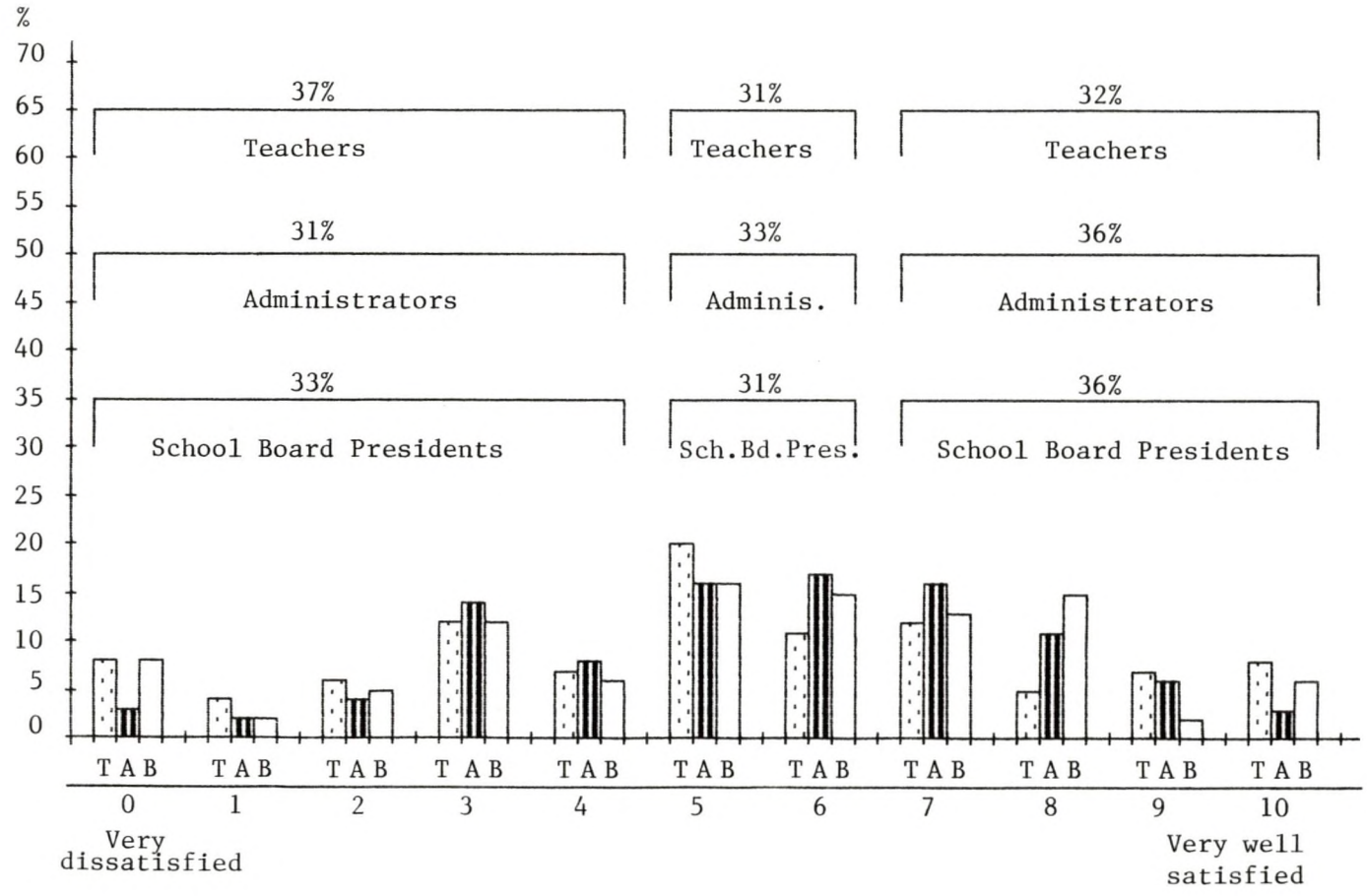

Fig. 30. Summary of responses to the survey questionnaire for the total population: How satisfied are <u>you</u> with the teacher supervision/evaluation process presently used in your district?

While question number one asked for the respondents to identify problems unique to the small school, there remains the possibility that they simply identified problems--any and/or all kinds of problems. The responses which address supervision/evaluation problems unique to small schools were identified according to the following ten categories:

1. Relationships
2. Time/Frequency
3. Competence
4. Direction/Purpose
5. Teacher Preparation
6. Format/Method
7. Legal Restrictions
8. Resources
9. Receptivity
10. Additional Comments

The researcher selected comments that were representative of several other respondents in order to add clarity to the discussion of the problem categories. The comments were selected in an attempt to capsulize the comments heard most frequently. The comments were quoted with only minor corrections in spelling or syntax.

Relationships

A problem voiced often by teachers, administrators, and school board presidents was that faculty and administration were well acquainted professionally and often times personally. Of those who responded, 37% of the teachers, 31% of the administrators, and 55% of the school board presidents viewed the area of relationships as a

problem. This "close" relationship was seen as a difficulty for an administrator (who might also be a fellow teacher) to be open and objective in the supervision/evaluation process. In the words of one teacher, "personalities clash and the staff and administration know too much (in some cases) about each other's lives." As another stated, "Sometimes small schools lend themselves to an air of informality. This carries over to any evaluation that may be made. No one wants to hurt a 'friend's' feelings, so often times evaluations are watered down."

The teachers were working together not only at school but also in activities of the community, tightening the web of familiarity. As a school board president said, "In most of the small schools in our area the teaching staff tend to be local residents or if they are outsiders they sometimes marry into local residents so they are a part of the community. This is one of the more serious problems we have in that you are not only dealing with the close relationships of the faculty, but you also have community influence." A teacher and native North Dakotan expressed it this way: "I believe that the supervision/evaluation system used in small schools does not really count for much. Even though the evaluation is harming students' progress, many boards are reluctant to dismiss this person because the teacher is bound to the community (ex. married to local farmer, businessman, etc.) and they feel the less waves the better. Jobs in a small community are scarce and news travels quick, so dismissals are few in areas where the teachers have community ties."

One school board president indicated that a patronizing stance was taken at times in their relationships with teachers. Because it

is often difficult to replace teachers, the school board may do whatever it can to support or protect the teachers they have. When they have a good teacher, they do everything they can in order to keep him or her.

Two teachers reported that maintaining confidentiality was a problem in small school systems. Somehow, because of close relationships, information was passed by the grapevine, or in the case of nonrenewals, frequent observations were easily noted, speculated on, and communicated about.

The area of relationships was the top category of concern for teachers (37%) and school board presidents (55%). It was the category receiving the second highest percentage for administrators (31%).

Time/Frequency

Another area of concern addressed with emphasis by all three responding groups was the matter of time. Sixty-nine percent of the administrative respondents (162) indicating this concern were also classroom teachers. Approximately half of them indicated they were spending less than 75% of their time in an administrative role. Administrators (35%), teachers (9%), and school board presidents (13%) identified as a problem the lack of administrative time available to devote to supervision/evaluation. One administrator's statement spoke for many others--"most small school administrators also do some teaching so there is little time left for supervision and evaluation."

A more specific time-related problem voiced by five teachers and three administrators was the inability of an administrator to visit some classes because their own teaching schedule conflicted. "I would maybe like to observe a freshman social studies class which meets 4th

period, but I teach a class of my own during 4th period so it will never be observed." It might very well be that the administrator was not available to supervise or evaluate the faculty member most needing it. On the other hand, the supervision/evaluation that was occurring could have been with the most capable teacher in the school simply because the administrator had that period open in his teaching schedule.

Four of the respondents also identified a lack of time devoted to the actual supervision/evaluation process--more time needed to be spent in observing instruction or in conducting pre/post conferences. As a teacher stated, "'Dropping in' for 20 minutes twice a year cannot give a true picture of the competency of a teacher."

Another aspect of time receiving some criticism from nine teachers and two administrators was that students do not behave normally during supervision/evaluation visits when they are conducted very infrequently. This change in behavior was viewed as not representing a "normal" classroom situation. This was then viewed as not providing an accurate assessment of the teacher's competence.

Other items receiving single comments from teachers were the following: (1) two evaluations per year were unnecessary in small schools due to the low rate of turnover among teachers, and (2) evaluation results and comments tend to be the same for teachers who have been in a system many years. They get a rehash of the same information year after year.

Single comments received from administrators were the following: (1) too few classroom visits are taking place, and (2) the actual time spent on a classroom visit was too short.

Competence

It was indicated that there were administrators among the respondents who did not have the professional respect of their teachers, or who felt themselves that they were performing inadequately. Thirteen teachers, two administrators, and one school board president reported that supervision/evaluation as practiced in some small schools was poorly done. The administrators in such schools were perceived as performing an inferior job and lacking competent skills. The following quotes are representative of the problems expressed:

"I would like to be evaluated by someone who has the necessary training and intelligence it takes to constructively evaluate another person. When I see a teacher of 25 years being evaluated by a young principal who can't use correct grammar and spelling on the form, it makes me wonder what the evaluation really means."

"I see the evaluation being done by a harried, unqualified principal (a man generally who wanted out of the classroom) and I see them done without any imagination and for totally negative reasons . . ." [Expletive deleted].

"Our superintendent fell asleep during at least three of the evaluations . . . Need I say more!"

"Our superintendent is confident his good teachers are doing a good job, and he's helpless to help the poor ones."

"You are being evaluated by a person that on a part-time basis is a fellow teacher. In my case, I do not respect many of that teacher's values and methods. It's hard to take advice from someone you don't respect in the first place. I feel I am being compared to a teacher (the evaluator), whom I don't think of real highly as a

teacher."

"The biggest problem I believe is that the evaluators are not trained in evaluation. They can tell you what they feel you are doing wrong but aren't trained in how to help the teacher improve."

"In our system, as it stands, it is worthless. How can I be supervised by someone who isn't as good as I am?"

After sharing some of her exasperation, one teacher said, "Maybe if I hang in long enough he'll leave!" A school board president succinctly said, "I think a shortage of persons qualified to do the evaluations is the foremost problem." One administrator tersely said of this problem area, "poorly done evaluations."

Concern was expressed by fifteen teachers and three administrators that very often evaluation was being conducted by someone "out of your field" or not at the same experience level. "Unlike large schools in which teachers (supervising or department teachers) can often evaluate others in the same field of teaching, many observations (most) in small schools are by administrators without any formal training in the subject area of the teacher being observed." An elementary teacher stated it this way: "The secondary principal is not familiar with elementary methods."

Direction/Purpose

The various aspects of concern within this problem category were expressed by 32% of the teachers, 8% of the administrators, and 8% of the school board presidents. It appeared that not a lot of meaningful supervision and evaluation was happening in some school systems. The indication from 12% of the teachers was that there was a lack of direction and/or purpose to the program. The following quotes speak to

this problem:

"The principal hasn't observed any teacher in the past 3 or 4 years. When he does sit in on classes, he has no evaluation form with him, or does not talk to the teacher about it."

"I've been teaching for 10 years now and have never been 'evaluated' and, as a result, it's hard to gauge the importance of a thing when one has never experienced it."

"Evaluation is done just so he can report to the board that evaluation is done. Evaluation as is in our system is worthless!"

"The superintendent feels that he knows the teachers so well personally that he neglects to check on the teacher's classroom work."

"The secondary principal's wife is an elementary teacher, so he is always helping her with situations in her room that should be left to the discretion of the elementary principal."

"Sometimes when grades 1-12 are in the same building emphasis is usually put on high school students/teachers/activities and the elementary is ignored."

This lack of direction was also identified in the statement that there was the "assumption that no evaluation is needed because all personnel are so close and available to each other."

Twenty-four teachers and one administrator expressed a concern about the amount of informal evaluation. While they indicated that informal visits were necessary, they also felt that more formal observation was necessary in order to provide an accurate and definitive picture of the instruction taking place. "I presume there has been an evaluation done on me in the seven years I have taught here. I have never been observed in a formal sense; the superintendent or principal

walks in and out or talks to me or my classes. I know others have been observed once or twice. This must be unique." Such comments indicated that there was a lack of clarity, definition, regularity, or design to the supervision/evaluation program.

Teacher responses (12), in particular, identified as a problem the lack of a systematic approach to the supervision and evaluation taking place. It appeared to be carried out on an irregular basis--some years carried out and other years nothing was done. "It is not conducted on a regular basis. One year I don't think we had any evaluation. The next year we were evaluated twice . . . Some teachers were evaluated and not others."

Five teachers referred to receiving "picky" feedback as opposed to comments of professional substance. Three teachers said they had not received any feedback. "I was evaluated last year but never saw the results."

In some settings it was perceived that supervision/evaluation was being conducted for negative reasons--simply fulfilling a requirement or as documentation for dismissal. This was identified as a problem by fourteen teachers, two administrators, and two school board presidents.

Some respondents indicated that representation in the formation of the supervision/evaluation program was not sufficient. They reported that in some cases the school board dictated. In other settings the administrator had control and the teachers were not consulted. This problem area was voiced by six teachers and one administrator.

Three school board presidents and one administrator reported that there was a problem with school boards not understanding the

importance of a supervision/evaluation program. Therefore, support was lacking for its development.

In a number of school systems supervision/evaluation was being conducted by one individual. This was viewed as presenting the possibility for biased assessments. It was also viewed as being only "one man's opinion"--a narrow focus. Having more individuals involved in the process would provide more ideas and opinions. A broader spectrum of viewpoints would be represented. Eight teachers and three administrators considered having one person conduct all the supervision and evaluation--a problem in small schools.

One school board president said that the evaluation should be "more complete." A teacher voiced the same concern this way: "The more input and information gathered from various forms of evaluation, the more accurate the information would be, and the better the chance for improvement of the teacher being evaluated."

Four teachers identified the lack of evaluation conducted on administrators as a problem. "In our school the principal and superintendent do the evaluations but no one evaluated their teaching."

There also was concern about not being treated equally. "The superintendent does not treat all teachers the same. He asks some teachers when he can come in. He tells some when he will be in. He allows some teachers to bully him." Eight teachers considered unequal treatment to be a problem.

Teacher Preparation

Entered as a unique problem in the supervision/evaluation process in small schools was the fact that teachers at both the elementary (with combination grades) and secondary levels had more

daily preparations than teachers in larger schools. Sometimes they were carrying very heavy loads and were unable to prepare adequately. They may also have been teaching in areas in which they were less proficient. In most instances there was only one class for each preparation. There was no chance to perfect it the second time around as in larger schools. "In a small school you have to prepare for from 4-6 different subject classes where in a larger school it is 2-3 subjects. This makes things easier for teachers in a larger school. On evaluation days you may be evaluated after you have tried your lesson on one class and then be able to more easily perfect that day's lesson. In small schools each lesson is a one shot approach."

Not only was a teacher's load heavy as measured by the number of daily preparations necessary, but responsibilities after school hours also consumed valuable time. "I've had as many as 5 different preps for 7 periods, been newspaper and yearbook advisor, assistant coach, sub bus driver, and cheerleader supervisor." Another teacher stated it this way: "As a first year teacher in a small school system I am finding the time I spend on extra duties almost as equivalent to my daily lesson preparations. Sometimes I feel I am spread too thin and therefore do not do an adequate job in <u>either</u> situation."

Six teachers and three administrators identified this area as a problem. Given a different set of circumstances, the same teacher in another setting with less constraints upon his or her time might be able to do a much more adequate job. Are we asking for the impossible in some of our small schools? Is the level of competence, in fact, all that could possibly be expected in some cases?

Format/Method

Teachers indicated not knowing on what they were being evaluated. The school system had no apparent outline or assessment instrument that was followed. To this problem a teacher replied, "very difficult to know what to expect, or what is expected." One teacher and one administrator felt this was due to the very informal approach to evaluation operating in some small school systems.

Although some school systems did have an assessment instrument, it was seen to have its problems also. Two teachers and one administrator felt that the checklist tool used in their systems was too subjective.

Nine teachers voiced a concern about receiving no constructive criticism following a classroom visit. The teachers, in addition to hearing about areas for improvement, wanted to hear some positive comments--something of support and encouragement. The following were quotes voiced about this concern:

"I do not feel that I am 'excellent' in all areas, which is what my evaluations always show. I feel as in all areas, teachers should be encouraged to do the best job they can, and constructive criticism would be very much appreciated."

"Criticism should be in a positive nature. I mean, if we teachers are expected to use positive reinforcement in the classroom, I think we should get the same kind of consideration from our administrators."

"I feel I can do nothing right in our superintendent's eyes. Maybe he doesn't have that idea at all, but he never <u>says</u> that he is pleased about <u>anything</u>. We are all in the same boat, so I guess we

will survive or leave education for good."

"I believe more good is done by pointing out good points and making people feel good about themselves."

"Evaluator is always too critical. If he can't find something to be critical about, he insinuates that he just didn't catch you doing a poor job. Never any praise--we usually don't even get a hello. Treated like little children (bad ones)."

Unannounced visits was another concern of teachers. Three teachers felt that having an announced supervision/evaluation visit was upsetting. Because it was upsetting to the teacher, the evaluator was not getting an accurate assessment of teacher performance.

In terms of the supervision/evaluation methods used, one teacher felt that not utilizing student evaluations or self evaluations was a problem.

Four teachers expressed the concern that in small school systems there seemed to be a problem in getting teachers to improve when they had been in the school system a long time. Reasons for this might possibly rest in the problems identified in the relationship category.

Overall, this problem category received comments from 9% of the teachers and 4% of the administrators. Although these percentages were not large, the importance of these criticisms merits the attention of the school systems where these situations exist.

Legal Restrictions

One board president expressed frustration at being unable to read the evaluation documentation on teachers because of legal restrictions. Another board president reported that legal processes prevented the removal of a long-time mediocre teacher from the system.

Resources

This category was a concern for teachers, administrators, and school board presidents. Eight teachers, three administrators, and two school board presidents indicated that having a lack of other teachers in one's own area of concentration prevented assistance in teacher growth. There was no other teacher available within the school system for them to observe or with whom to compare notes as a learning experience.

In addition to a shortage of people resources, a shortage of financial resources was also seen as a problem by two school board presidents. One president said there was a lack of money to provide for in-service opportunities to assist teacher growth. The other president said that a lack of money hindered them in attracting qualified teachers--"top" faculty.

Receptivity

This problem category was represented among teachers and administrators. This was seen as a problem of attitude. It was observed that teachers were negative about supervision/evaluation. Two teachers and eight administrators reported that it was difficult to get teachers involved and feeling comfortable with supervision/evaluation.

Additional Comments

No opportunity was provided for the respondents to indicate if they felt there were no unique supervision and/or evaluation problems in small schools. However, a number of respondents indicated there were none: 15% of the teachers, 20% of the administrators, and 11% of the school board presidents.

While question number one asked for the respondents to identify problems unique to small schools, a number of the respondents reported strengths they thought present. The strengths reported are as follows:

1. Due to the close personal and professional relationship between and among faculty and administration in small schools, formal observation was unnecessary. The administrators had a good idea of teacher effectiveness because they were in and out of the classrooms frequently for a variety of reasons. Fourteen teachers, eleven administrators, and two school board presidents reported this as a strength.

2. Because the administrators were thoroughly familiar with the setting, they were better able to supervise and evaluate. Four teachers and one administrator reported this as a strength.

3. The small setting enabled the administration to attend to problems with faculty sooner. One school board president reported this as a strength.

4. Fewer teachers to observe enabled the administration to observe more often. Five teachers and one administrator reported this as a strength.

5. The teaching administrator is better able to relate because he or she is also in the classroom. One administrator reported this as a strength.

The observations which were offered concerning problems unique to small schools may not seem to be unique to those outside the small school arena. However, the fact that those working in these small schools considered them unique to their setting requires that they be examined from that perspective.

Changes to Improve Present Supervision/ Evaluation Programs: Suggestions

The final page of the research questionnaire provided a second opportunity for the respondents to state personal thoughts and ideas relative to the supervision/evaluation program being used in their school system. The second question asked the respondents to provide suggestions for ways in which their present supervision/evaluation programs could be improved. Responding to this question were 314 teachers (60%), 129 administrators (50%), and 36 school board presidents (27%).

The responses which addressed changes to improve the present supervision/evaluation programs were identified according to the following seven categories:

1. Time/Frequency
2. Competence
3. Direction/Purpose
4. Format/Method
5. Resources
6. Receptivity
7. Additional Ideas

In order to add clarity to the suggestions offered, the researcher selected comments that were representative of those made by several of the respondents. The comments have been quoted directly with only minor corrections in spelling or syntax.

Time/Frequency

Responses in this category were provided by 41% of the administrators, 34% of the teachers, and 19% of the school board presidents.

Within this category of varied responses, individuals from each of the responding groups wanted to see more supervision/evaluation occur. Approximately 9% of all those who responded offered this suggestion. While the frequency ranged from once/month to four/year, the most frequently cited suggestion was twice/year. As stated by a teacher, "Last year I personally had 1 evaluation. This year I have had two so far. I feel more are needed."

To a lesser degree, the respondents also suggested that the observation period in the classroom be longer. They also wanted the observations to begin earlier in the school year. It was suggested that evaluations be more frequent for beginning teachers, that more visits of an "informal" nature be conducted, and that supervision/evaluation be conducted regularly rather than on a "hit and miss" fashion or not at all.

For the administrators, 22% of their responses in this category suggested that more time be afforded for them to conduct supervision/evaluation. "If I had the time I would try to get into the classrooms more often!"

Eight teachers suggested that supervisors vary the time of day for conducting supervision/evaluation. Teaching administrators apparently tended to use only certain periods of the day for supervisory efforts because of the time periods they had committed to their own classroom teaching duties. This might result in an elementary teacher being observed only during reading instruction. A secondary teacher, teaching several different courses, might be observed only in the course for which he or she was least academically prepared. This was seen as providing the teaching administrator with a very limited view

of a teacher's total performance ability.

Competence

It was observed by the respondents in the first question that there were administrators who were not performing their roles satisfactorily. In addition, there were administrators who felt unprepared for their leadership role in the supervision/evaluation program.

To the second question, slightly more than 5% of the teachers responded with suggestions in this category. Eight percent of the administrators and a single school board president also provided suggestions. The most frequent suggestions were that the supervisor/evaluator be a well-qualified person and that he or she be more able to supervise/evaluate specialized areas as well as teaching levels--elementary and secondary. In a more general sense, they wanted the person to be better trained. In the words of a teacher, "I'd want a very qualified person to evaluate others--one who is an excellent classroom teacher himself." An administrator said, "Consider more training for administrators on what is important in teacher evaluations."

Direction/Purpose

This category received a large number of responses covering a wide range of thought. Suggestions in this category were made by 41% of the administrators, 38% of the teachers, and 52% of the school board presidents.

There were 10% of the administrators and 6% of the teachers who suggested that the focus for supervision/evaluation be placed on improvement. As stated by a teacher, "not for 'correction' or 'punishment' or the 'record'."

Of the respondents, 5% suggested that a program for supervision/evaluation be established and that it be formulated by administrators, teachers, and school board members. As specifically stated by a teacher, "In order for an evaluation to be meaningful, it must have the support of board, administration, and teachers. In order for the support to exist, teachers must have a voice in drawing up the evaluation tool and policy."

The suggestion that more than one individual be responsible for teacher supervision/evaluation in order to minimize the effects of bias and/or prejudice and to utilize the thoughts, abilities, and perceptions that more individuals may bring to an event was stated by 5% of the administrators, 3% of the teachers, and 13% of the school board presidents. One teacher stated that there was a need "to get more evaluators into the process so strengths and weaknesses of the teacher might become more apparent when witnessed by more people."

Format/Method

This category of responses brought the greatest number of suggestions. Nearly 60% of the administrators, 63% of the teachers, and 44% of the school board presidents made suggestions for changes in the format/method of their supervision/evaluation programs in order to provide improvement.

Particularly strong support was voiced for the use of conferences as a part of the supervision/evaluation process. Nearly 16% of the teachers suggested that there be a post-conference following a supervision/evaluation visit. They also suggested that teachers be allowed input into that discussion. Suggesting the use of a pre-conference were 6% of the teachers. In summary, one teacher stated,

"There should be a conference before the evaluation with the teacher listing the points to be observed. Another conference should follow with both parties giving their evaluations. Suggestions should be made for improvement." The teachers clearly wanted an opportunity to discuss the visit.

Of possible note was the suggestion of ten respondents that a follow-up observation be conducted when a need for improvement was indicated.

Approximately 8% of the teachers suggested that a constructive change would be for the supervisor/evaluator to provide specific comments and suggestions regarding a visit or observation. They wanted any weaknesses defined and a plan determined for ways to improve the weaknesses identified. As stated by a teacher, "Point out deficiencies but at the same time suggest ways to improve--offer help and support."

Nine percent of the teachers suggested that supervision provide positive feedback and/or constructive criticism. In the words of a teacher, "As an administrator I would use it as a time to stress the positive as well as the negative. I think too often we teach without recognition of the good that is done."

Three percent of the teacher and administrator respondents suggested that the supervisor/evaluator provide a written narrative. The narrative could be entered as either the complete supervision/evaluation report or a part of it.

Twelve percent of the administrators suggested that teacher self evaluation be employed. This same suggestion was made by 5% of the school board presidents as well as by several teachers.

Student evaluations were suggested by teachers as one way of obtaining additional information in the teacher supervision/evaluation process. Five percent of the administrators also made this suggestion.

Three percent of the responding population suggested that the use of audiovisual equipment could be helpful to the supervision/evaluation process. As one teacher stated, "Looking at a videotape can be a real learning experience." In the words of an administrator, "I think audio and video tape recordings should be used along with the administrator's observation. This would help the administrator and teacher after in a conference between administrator and teacher."

Of some significance would be the suggestion of ten teachers and one administrator that the checklist in current use be discontinued. The following are representative comments of teachers:

"Our present instrument is essentially a checklist. I believe it could be expanded to include suggestions for improvement of the teacher."

"I would break away from the checklist. It is too much a personal opinion and grading system."

"The observation/evaluation form is a checklist with comments following. No value appears to be placed on the observation/evaluation. Everything is checked 'average' (including time put in, clothing worn, etc.)."

There were seven teachers who said that they would like to see a checklist used and that the checklist should be comprehensive and appropriate for the teaching level or course of instruction in which the teacher was engaged. Also suggesting the use of the checklist were three administrators and two school board presidents.

On the issue of whether supervision/evaluation visits should be announced or unannounced, there was more support for unannounced visits. This suggestion was made by 7% of the teachers and by 8% of the school board presidents. Announced visits were suggested by 4% of the teachers and by 5% of the school board presidents.

In terms of the supervision/evaluation methods suggested by the respondents, table 11 presents a summary of the methods suggested as well as the number of respondents offering the suggestions.

TABLE 11

METHODS OF SUPERVISION/EVALUATION SUGGESTED BY THE RESPONDENTS

Methods	Teachers	Administrators	School Board Presidents
Self evaluation	9	16	2
Student evaluation	4	7	2
Peer evaluation	8	3	2
School board evaluation	4		1
Videotape	12	6	2
Audiotape	2	3	2
Total responses	39	35	11

Resources

The factor of professional isolation was apparent in small schools. There may be only one teacher per grade level or course. A teacher may not have an opportunity to observe or consult with a fellow teacher knowledgeable at the appropriate level or in a particular area

of expertise. Seven administrators and six teachers expressed suggestions for more "access to growth activities."

Several suggestions requested workshops or in-service events pertaining to good teaching techniques. Additional responses suggested that teachers be afforded opportunities to visit other classrooms. One administrator stated, "I would like to see my teachers sit in on each other's classrooms for new and different learning experiences. I like the idea of school districts exchanging teachers for a day to observe other teachers and their teaching techniques."

Receptivity

Three percent of the respondents suggested that an awareness be raised of the importance and results of good supervision/evaluation. One way to do this would be through in-service events.

It was also suggested that an effort be made to lower the tension experienced in the supervision/evaluation process. More feelings of partnership were desired.

Additional Ideas

The following are single suggestions expressed which seemed more unusual and worthy of thought:

1. Have an impartial outside observer or team of observers conduct evaluations. This would be of particular help in specialized areas. This might also help in obtaining objective reporting.

2. Use a method of clinical supervision with experienced staff and a modified teacher training/internship program with beginning staff.

3. Develop a process for individualized evaluations.

4. Meet twice/month with each teacher to share concerns.

5. Observe for a full week in order to see more of an overall picture of a teacher's performance.

The suggestions for ways to improve supervision/evaluation programs were clustered largely in three categories: time/frequency, direction/purpose, and format/method.

More time was desired for/by administrators to carry out a supervision/evaluation program. Teachers expressed a desire for more frequent and longer observations.

Emphasis was placed upon supervision/evaluation for improvement; the need for teachers, administrators, and school board members to plan supervision/evaluation programs together; and the need for more than one individual in a school district to be responsible for supervision/evaluation in order to provide greater objectivity.

The use of conferences was a well-supported suggestion. It was also clear that administrators should provide constructive criticism, positive feedback, and helpful suggestions for ways to improve teaching. The use of self evaluation, student evaluation, peer evaluation, and videotaping was encouraged also.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY/CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The main purpose of this study was to survey teachers, administrators, and school board presidents in the small schools in North Dakota in order to gather data concerning background information about the respondents as well as their attitudes and perceptions regarding teacher supervision/evaluation. A secondary purpose was to seek individual observations from the teachers, administrators, and school board presidents concerning problems unique to small schools and to obtain constructive suggestions for ways in which supervision/evaluation could be improved in the school districts represented. Based upon the resulting data as found in chapter 4, the researcher has attempted to summarize the information and to draw conclusions about the information presented therein. In addition, recommendations have been offered based upon analysis of the data and interpretation of the literature reviewed.

Summary/Conclusions

The conclusions are based upon the analysis of the data collected. The conclusions are divided into three sections. Section I: These conclusions deal with the analysis of the data received in response to the background information asked of the respondents. Section II: These conclusions deal with the analysis of data related

to responses concerning the nature of the supervision/evaluation programs that were currently being practiced in the Level III schools. Section III: These conclusions deal with the analysis of data concerning the personal thoughts and ideas relative to the supervision/evaluation programs being practiced in the Level III school systems.

Summary/Conclusions Related to Background Information (Section I)

The statements below describe the areas of similarity as well as dissimilarity among the teachers, administrators, and school board presidents in regard to the background information received.

I-A. The vast majority of elementary teachers were women. Among secondary teachers there were larger numbers of males (64%) than females (36%). Among the elementary principals, approximately half were female. However, among secondary principals and school board presidents the majority were males. Most of the elementary principals were classroom teachers who had the principalship as an additional responsibility. Since 90% of the elementary teachers were female, there were larger numbers of female principals. Clearly, in these small school districts women have not sought the higher positions of leadership and teaching or have not prepared themselves to assume them. The small schools need to give serious attention to encouraging their female youth toward secondary teaching and leadership educational positions through career education and guidance programs. They must also seek to fill these positions with females who might serve to model such aspirations.

I-B. In all groups of respondents, 85% or more were native to the state of North Dakota. In addition, 80% or more had lived over

fifteen years in a small town or rural setting. It would appear that most of the respondents grew up in rural settings in North Dakota and remained on or returned to the rural scene. Rural children are largely being educated by those teachers who were born in North Dakota and who have remained in rural settings. The strongly rural experience base of these educators would certainly influence and possibly limit the nature of the education being received by their students.

I-C. Teachers and administrators had more often lived in their current communities 1-5 years or over 15 years. The mid-range groups (6-10 years and 11-15 years), as a combined group, represented an additional group with a comparable percentage of teachers and administrators. At least 75% of the school board presidents had lived over 15 years in their current community. Rural families tend to be considerably less mobile. Therefore, having school board presidents who have lived in the community for an extended period of time would be expected. However, little movement in or out of a community also inhibits or retards change, if indeed a need for change was determined. Small school districts under the leadership of persons who have lived extended lengths of time in the same community may have a strong tendency to maintain themselves at a status quo level.

I-D. Three-fourths of the teachers were not raised in the community in which they were currently living. The teachers who were teaching in a community in which they were raised may be women who married hometown men who remained with or returned to a family farm or business. Such ties to a community would make it difficult for an administrator to supervise and/or evaluate a teacher needing obvious improvement or removal. The bonds of relationship and acquaintance

between the teacher and the community would strongly influence the work of the administrator.

I-E. Over one-third of the elementary teachers had spouses who were originally from the community in which they were teaching. Relatively few of the secondary teachers had spouses who were originally from their current community. Since the preponderance of elementary teachers were women, it would be more likely that they would have a spouse from the community in which they were teaching. Many of them are probably married to men who have stayed with the family farm or family business. In rural midwestern United States, it is quite a common practice for a wife to go wherever her husband finds employment rather than the situation being reversed. A female teacher having a spouse from the community in which she is teaching would be likely to remain for a longer period of time within the school than would a female teacher with no familial ties to the community. If the teacher who has a spouse from the community was an excellent teacher, there would be little concern. However, such a teacher with weaknesses would present a possible problem. Her familial and community ties could act as a "safety net" serving as an inhibiting force for the administrator and resulting in little motivation for improvement on the part of the teacher.

I-F. There was an almost equal number of elementary and secondary teachers among the respondents. Equal numbers of elementary and secondary teachers were selected for the sample. The rate of returns also approximated this ratio. Therefore, the results of the survey should be representative of the elementary and secondary teachers from the schools in this sample.

I-G. The highest percentage for years of experience for both elementary and secondary teachers was in the 1-5 year category. It was also noted that this same category received the highest percentage for both elementary and secondary teachers as to the number of years they had been a teacher in the current school. It would appear that more of the responding teachers are relatively new to the profession and are in their first teaching setting.

I-H. The vast majority of all responding teachers had a bachelor's degree as the highest degree earned. Salary scales in small schools may be one of the reasons why so few teachers have achieved advanced degrees. A second contributing factor might be the physical remoteness from a college or university where one could pursue academic work. Therefore, monetary incentive and wherewithal may be lacking, and the physical remoteness is an additional factor which contributes toward not furthering professional academic advancement. In addition, since many of the respondents had taught only 1-5 years, it was possible that in that length of time they had not yet recognized their need or developed their desire for an advanced degree. Consequently the percentage of respondents having a bachelor's degree as the highest degree earned was higher.

I-I. Dual administrative roles were held by a relatively small percentage of administrators. Therefore, most of the administrators were likely to be working with teachers at the educational level with which they were most familiar and comfortable. This would be the situation where superintendents and/or secondary principals were responsible for secondary supervision/evaluation. However, if either the superintendent or secondary principal were responsible for elementary

supervision/evaluation, they may have been working at a level for which they were not trained. The fact that there were administrators who were holding more than one administrative role, or who were assuming the responsibilities of another role, may have accounted for the expression of discontent with having an administrator who was supervising teachers at a teaching level for which he was not prepared.

I-J. In general, the higher the administrative position the higher the credential level held. Superintendents held more Level I credentials, nearly equal numbers of secondary principals held Level II and III credentials, and elementary principals held more Level III credentials. Supervision was probably not as satisfying for the administrator or teacher when the administrator who was responsible for conducting it held a Level II or Level III credential. The administrator who held a Level II or III credential was not as likely to have had as much educational preparation in supervision/evaluation as one who held a Level I credential. Having been adequately prepared for the task of conducting supervision/evaluation would enable the administrator to more appropriately and satisfactorily carry out his responsibilities.

I-K. More superintendents have had secondary teaching experience than have had elementary teaching experience. Secondary principals have had considerably less elementary teaching experience than have the superintendents. Therefore, since most of the responsibility for supervision/evaluation appears to be with the superintendent and/or the secondary principal, these individuals may be feeling inadequate and ill-prepared for this responsibility when it comes to working with elementary teachers. Of further note is the fact that higher percentages of secondary and elementary principals have had more

teaching experience than have the superintendents. This may be a factor often overlooked when the responsibility for supervision/evaluation is determined.

I-L. Over half of the secondary and elementary principals had a bachelor's degree as the highest degree earned. The higher the administrative position the greater the percentage of advanced degrees achieved. Very few of the administrators had either a specialist or a doctoral degree. The questions surely need to be raised as to whether this is due to the credentialing standards for the state of North Dakota, whether small schools tend to attract individuals with less incentive for professional advancement, or whether physical isolation from an institution of higher education and/or monetary limitations may also restrict the pursuit of advanced degrees.

I-M. The higher the administrative position the more time that is spent on administrative duties. Conversely, the lower the administrative position the more time that is spent on classroom teaching. Yet, as previously noted, secondary principals were identified by teachers as having as much responsibility for supervision/evaluation as were superintendents. However, more secondary principals are teaching and putting less time into administrative duties; one of those duties receiving less time might be supervision/evaluation.

I-N. School board presidents for the Level III schools in North Dakota are rather experienced school board members with half of them having served over six years on the school board. This level of experience may be the reason why their responses were very similar to those of the teachers and administrators. However, the majority of them are quite new to their position as president.

I-O. There were more school board presidents who had some college education or a college degree than there were who had only a high school diploma.

Summary/Conclusions Related to Current Practices (Section II)

The statements below describe the areas of similarity as well as those of dissimilarity among the teachers, administrators, and school board presidents in regard to the information received on the current practices section of the questionnaire.

II-A. In general, the responsibility for supervision/evaluation in this sample of small schools declined with the level of the administrative position. However, teachers indicated that the secondary principal had very nearly as much responsibility as did the superintendent. According to the teachers, approximately one-fourth identified the elementary principal as having primary responsibility for teacher supervision/evaluation. The school board presidents gave considerably more responsibility for supervision/evaluation to the superintendent. This may be due to the fact that the superintendent is the administrator who works most closely with the board and therefore would be reporting personnel information to the board, making it appear that he had more of the primary responsibility for supervision/evaluation whether or not he actually did.

II-B. Approximately one-third of the teachers and one-third of the school board presidents had received training in a supervision/evaluation process. Of the administrators a total of 88% had received such training. However, at least 11% of the administrators had not received training in a supervision/evaluation process. To have even

this many of the administrators untrained for this task was surprising. However, approximately one-third of the total number of administrators were elementary principals, the administrative group to whom the respondents gave considerably less responsibility for supervision/evaluation. It may be that the untrained administrators came from this group. Quite possibly this may be because the majority of elementary principals were full-time teachers and therefore administrators in name only, carrying out few administrative tasks. On the other hand, it may be that because they were untrained they are not given the responsibility for supervision/evaluation.

II-C. The primary means for obtaining information about supervision/evaluation processes were the following: graduate courses, workshops, convention topics, or personal reading. In this sample the format most reasonable for bringing all three groups together in a unified informational and/or instructional setting would be a workshop. Interestingly, this is the format currently being used by the "coalition" of North Dakota Council of School Administrators (NDCSA), North Dakota School Boards Association (NDSBA), and North Dakota Education Association (NDEA) in their "Evaluation for Growth" program.

II-D. The existing supervision/evaluation methods listed most frequently by all three groups were the following: observation, post-observation, checklist, and pre-observation. Considerably more administrators identified the use of the pre-observation conference than did teachers. It was apparent that with such a discrepancy the pre-observation conference was interpreted differently by these two groups. It may be that some administrators considered consulting with the teacher to arrange for a time for the observation to be a

pre-observation conference.

II-E. Most frequently teacher observations were reported by all three groups as occurring once or twice a year. This may be due in part to the numbers of teaching administrators who must divide their time between their teaching and administrative responsibilities.

II-F. Both teachers and administrators were almost evenly divided as to whether or not teachers should know beforehand when an observation was to be conducted. The school board presidents were quite clear in their response; the majority thought teachers should not know about an impending observation. Their response may be due in part to the fact that they have considerably less personal investment in an observation and therefore could take this stance.

II-G. In practice, teachers and administrators were in close agreement as to whether or not supervision/evaluation visits actually were announced beforehand in their districts. Visits were more frequently "sometimes" announced. One-fourth of the school board presidents were not well informed on this issue. They did not know what the practice was in their districts. This may be due to the fact that a number of districts have not defined their supervision/evaluation program and/or whatever is in current practice may have been determined between teachers and administrators only.

The second most frequent response which both groups closely agreed upon was that a time was "always" agreed upon. Here again, the school board presidents lacked information. One-third did not know if a time was agreed upon before an observation was conducted.

II-H. It was clear that records were being kept on observations as identified by a majority of all three groups. However, a

significant number of teachers and school board presidents "did not know" if this was being done. It would appear that nearly one-fourth of the teachers received no feedback following an observation. If they had received feedback, it apparently was done orally, providing them with no indication of a record-keeping system or format. These teachers would have reason to be uncomfortable with supervision/evaluation not knowing what, if any, kind of record was being kept regarding their professional abilities. Likewise, school board presidents should have knowledge of whether or not such records are being kept. They are in a position for taking formal action on a teacher's career and need to be able to make sound decisions based upon more than word of mouth.

II-I. Administrators were making more use of the narrative description of an observation than either teachers or school board presidents were aware. Other kinds of records cited more frequently were a formalized checklist and personal handwritten notes by the administrator. A number of the teachers (9%) did not know what kinds of records were kept. For them little feedback or consultation must be occurring following the classroom visit.

II-J. A majority in each of the three groups stated that teachers preview records before they are placed in the file. However, 10% of the teachers and 19% of the school board presidents did not know if the teachers previewed what was to be placed in the file--evidence of a break in communication within that system. Teachers who do not know what, if anything, has been placed in their file are very likely to distrust and resent the process. These feelings would make them unwilling participants in the supervision/evaluation program.

II-K. Clearly all groups saw teacher supervision/evaluation as usually being conducted as a means for teacher improvement. Two other strongly supported reasons were that it was required by the school board and that it was something the administration felt should be done. Substantial support for supervision/evaluation being conducted as documentation for dismissal was reported by administrators and school board presidents. However, when all groups got down to considering the one most personally significant reason for supervision/evaluation, overwhelming agreement was shown for it being conducted as a means for teacher improvement.

II-L. All groups perceived greater teacher satisfaction than dissatisfaction with the current supervision/evaluation process. However, as a group, the teachers expressed a much higher percentage of dissatisfaction. Since teachers are the reason for the necessity for supervision/evaluation, it is likely that they would have the most emotional investment in terms of satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Interestingly, the administrators and school board presidents perceived teachers to be considerably more satisfied with teacher supervision/evaluation in their district than the administrators and school board presidents were personally. This may be an indication that these two groups do not have good lines of communication with teachers which would enable them to more accurately perceive the stance of the teachers.

Summary/Conclusions Related to Observations/Suggestions (Section III)

The following statements describe the areas of similarity as well as dissimilarity among the teachers, administrators, and school

board presidents in regard to the observations/suggestions received. The personal responses to the last two questions concerning observations and suggestions were organized according to several categories. The same categories were not necessarily addressed in both questions. The categories that were addressed most frequently were relationships, time/frequency, and direction/purpose.

III-A. Relationships, although observed as a problem, were not directly addressed in the suggestions offered. In general, the familiarity of faculty members with each other and faculty members with community in small rural settings was viewed as hampering the objectivity and responsibility of administrators and school board members. In order to maintain pleasant relationships, those responsible for supervision/evaluation may have glossed over, watered down, or even avoided the process. It is possible that some of the difficulties in this area may be alleviated by bringing to the supervision/evaluation program a better sense of direction/purpose. If teachers, administrators, and school board members were to mutually design the supervision/evaluation program, then such concerns as who evaluates and what the intent of the program is may be dealt with in more appropriate, objective, and meaningful ways for teachers.

III-B. The direction/purpose category was addressed in the problems that were identified as well as in the changes offered for improvement. In general, there appeared to be a number of districts where supervision/evaluation was a haphazard affair conducted, if at all, with little communication of direction/purpose. Because it was felt that teachers and administrators were so well acquainted and that administrators were quite well aware of a teacher's performance,

supervision/evaluation was then deemed to be unnecessary. However, for an administrator to be informed is one thing, but it is quite another to make use of that information in order to assist in teacher improvement.

III-C. The time/frequency category held more importance for teachers and administrators than it did for school board presidents. Administrators expressed a need for more time to conduct supervision/evaluation. There were teachers who wanted longer in-class observation periods, more observations, and observations conducted at various times of the day. Where there are teaching administrators--and most particularly this would apply to secondary teaching principals--there needs to be a carefully planned program for supervision/evaluation. The day-to-day agenda could easily allow for supervision/evaluation to become "lost in the shuffle." Supervision/evaluation should be "built in." Time for such a program may not actually be provided; rather, one may need to make or take time for this activity.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are based upon the researcher's interpretation of the literature reviewed and the analysis of the data collected.

1. The same methods of supervision/evaluation should not be used for and with all teachers. Teachers are at varying levels of professional growth. A focus or direction or method helpful to one teacher may not serve the needs or desires of another. We individualize for children's needs. We should do so for teachers' needs also.

2. Small schools should make more use of flexible scheduling to accommodate the teaching schedules of administrators thus freeing them to supervise/evaluate at various periods of the day. This applies particularly to administrators who have classroom teaching responsibilities.

3. More utilization of a variety of supervisory techniques should be practiced. These should include clinical supervision and self, peer, and student evaluations.

4. Teachers need to be provided opportunities to visit the classrooms of other teachers, both within and outside the district. These visits would enable them to observe and learn from their peers.

5. Those who supervise/evaluate teachers need to emphasize the positive as well as provide constructive criticism. Specific suggestions helpful to the teacher should be made.

6. Administrators should receive assistance with supervision/evaluation techniques and programs.

7. Schools should afford teachers the opportunity to voluntarily participate in supervisory groups. Central to such a group is a willingness and openness to communicate with each other about the issues and concerns having to do with teaching and learning. "It is the task of the supervisor to try to create a context which invites teachers to learn on their own, by means of interaction with one another, to discover the willingness to risk one's person in the service of one's learning" (Mosher and Purpel 1972, p. 156).

8. North Dakota should expand the amount of graduate work required in supervision/evaluation for certification of administrators. Of considerable merit might be the establishment of a professional

certificate for supervision. Small districts might share in the employment of an individual with such certification. (Seventeen states currently offer a certificate for supervisors.)

9. North Dakota should establish a statewide supervision/evaluation assistance program. Through the Department of Public Instruction, teams could be available to visit schools upon invitation in order to conduct information and/or training sessions in supervision/evaluation.

10. Teachers, administrators, and school board members must get together and discuss the supervision/evaluation program in their district. Mutually arrived at goals and programs are most desirable.

11. If the school supervision/evaluation program is not formulated with school board consultation, the school board certainly should be informed as to what is or is not being practiced.

12. Neighboring districts should consider exchanging supervision/evaluation personnel to aid in obtaining more objective results.

13. Administrators must seriously assess how their time is being spent. It is quite possible that more time might be found to use for teacher supervision/evaluation and that less time might be needed for office routines.

14. Schools should establish a system for supervising/evaluating the teaching administrator as a teacher. In essence, this person is considered a "teacher of teachers." Clearly he or she must be a model for teaching excellence. The admonition is to "practice what you teach" (Dale 1984, p. 83).

15. Schools should encourage more team teaching as a means of opening up classrooms and bringing about an exchange of thought as well as providing exposure to another's teaching.

16. Schools should provide in-service for teachers and administrators in the use of the ERIC system as one way for rural teachers to obtain resource help in an effort to grow professionally, a goal not easily accommodated when one is geographically isolated from the educational arenas for advanced study. This service could be invaluable to faculty and students as well. Such a focus would necessitate an investment in equipment for viewing information in microforms. (The ERIC department at the University of North Dakota conducted a study to determine the level of participation among the schools in North Dakota for the three-year period between 1979-1982. Among the Level III districts, 35 schools--approximately one-fourth--had requested from 1-5 searches, two had requested 6-10 searches, and one had requested more than sixteen searches. Clearly an outstanding and readily available resource is not being utilized well at all by the small schools of North Dakota.)

17. Rural schools should avoid the tendency to blindly follow the models, methods, and techniques of supervision/evaluation employed by urban schools. The "bigger is better" idea has not served rural education well. Rural educators must work to define and implement programs designed for their individual and specific needs and goals.

18. Supervision/evaluation programs should be continuously evaluated; changes should be made when needed.

19. Schools of education within the state should consider providing teacher training programs which are specifically geared to

preparation for teaching in rural settings. Such programs could serve to enhance teacher competency and adjustment, thus lessening the need for supervision/evaluation.

20. Institutions of higher education must take a leadership role in pursuing research regarding supervision/evaluation.

As a result of this study the researcher concluded that teachers, administrators, and school board presidents are, in general, similarly aware of the supervision/evaluation practices in their school districts. However, it appears that administrators are lacking time available to conduct supervision/evaluation. This is a constraint which needs to be altered in order to provide more effective programs.

Much of the supervision/evaluation currently carried on appears to be summative in nature. Since a primary declared purpose for supervision/evaluation is teacher improvement, more attention to formative systems of supervision/evaluation should be considered.

There currently is a more positive and collaborative interest among teachers, administrators, and school board members in supervision/evaluation across the state. The researcher urges continuation of this supportive stance as well as continued examination of what <u>is</u> in order to make what <u>might be</u> better, remembering that what is expedient is not always appropriate or best. No one ever said supervision/evaluation was going to be easy!

APPENDIX A

LETTER OF PERMISSION

Petersburg, North Dakota
July 28, 1984

Dr. Ernest R. House
Department of Administration,
Higher and Continuing Education
University of Illinois
1310 South Sixth Street
Champaign, Illinois 61820

Dear Dr. House:

I would like permission to reproduce Table 3-1. A Taxonomy of Major Evaluation Models, as found in Evaluation Models edited by Madaus, Scriven and Stufflebeam. The concise and encompassing information found in the taxonomy would be a valuable addition to Chapter 2 of my dissertation.

Sincerely,

Claudette J. Harring

P.S. I am nearing the completion of my studies in educational administration at the University of North Dakota. The focus for my dissertation is supervision/evaluation as found in the small schools of North Dakota.

I grant permission to Claudette J. Harring to use "A Taxonomy of Major Evaluation Models" in her dissertation.

Ernest R. House

Author's Signature

Good luck with the dissertation

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRES FOR TEACHERS, ADMINISTRATORS, AND SCHOOL BOARD PRESIDENTS

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

I. Background Information

(1) A. 1.____Male 2.____Female

(2) B. Are you a North Dakota native? 1.____Yes 2.____No

(3) C. How many years have you lived in a small town or rural setting?

1.____1-5 years 3.____11-15 years
2.____6-10 years 4.____Over 15 years

(4) D. How many years have you lived in this current community?

1.____1-5 years 3.____11-15 years
2.____6-10 years 4.____Over 15 years

(5) E. Are you teaching in the community in which you were raised?

1.____Yes 2.____No

(6) F. If married, is your spouse originally from this community?

1.____Yes 2.____No

(7) G. Present teaching level: 1.____Elementary (K-8)

2.____Secondary 3.____Other (Specify_____)

Years as a(n): (Check) all that apply	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
(8) H. elementary teacher	__0	__1-5	__6-10	__11-15	__Over 15
(9) I. secondary teacher	__0	__1-5	__6-10	__11-15	__Over 15
(10) J. teacher in this school	__0	__1-5	__6-10	__11-15	__Over 15

(11) K. What is the highest degree you have earned? (Mark highest one.)

1.____Less than Bachelors

2.____Bachelors

3.____Masters

4.____Doctorate

5.____Other (Specify_____)

ADMINISTRATOR QUESTIONNAIRE

I. Background Information

(1) A. 1.____Male 2.____Female

(2) B. Are you a North Dakota native? 1.____Yes 2.____No

(3) C. How many years have you lived in a small town or rural setting?

1.__1-5 yrs. 2.__6-10 yrs. 3.__11-15 yrs. 4.__Over 15 yrs.

(4) D. How many years have you lived in this current community?

1.__1-5 yrs. 2.__6-10 yrs. 3.__11-15 yrs. 4.__Over 15 yrs.

E. Check your present role description: (Check all that apply)
(5) a.____Superintendent
(6) b.____Secondary principal
(7) c.____Elementary principal

(8) F. Administrative credential held for which level of school?
1.____Level I 2.____Level II 3._____Level III

Years as a(n): (Check) all that apply	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
(9) G. elementary teacher	__0	__1-5	__6-10	__11-15	__Over 15
(10) H. secondary teacher	__0	__1-5	__6-10	__11-15	__Over 15
(11) I. teacher in this school	__0	__1-5	__6-10	__11-15	__Over 15
(12) J. administrator in this school	__0	__1-5	__6-10	__11-15	__Over 15

(13) K. What is the highest degree you have earned? (Mark highest one.)
1.____Less than Bachelors
2.____Bachelors
3.____Masters
4.____Specialist
5.____Doctorate
6.____Other (Specify_____)

(14) L. Percent of time spent in administrative role:

1.____0-24 2.____25-74 3.____75-100

M. Other professional positions currently held:
(15) a.____Classroom teacher (Specify_____)
(16) b.____Coach (Specify_____)
(17) c.____Other (Specify_____)

SCHOOL BOARD PRESIDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

I. Background Information

(1) A. 1.____Male 2.____Female

(2) B. Are you a North Dakota native? 1.____Yes 2.____No

(3) C. How many years have you lived in a small town or rural setting?

1.____1-5 years 3.____11-15 years

2.____6-10 years 4.____Over 15 years

(4) D. How many years have you lived in this current community?

1.____1-5 years 3.____11-15 years

2.____6-10 years 4.____Over 15 years

(5) E. Is the district for which you are school board president the community in which you were raised?

1.____Yes 2.____No

(6) F. How many years have you served on the school board?

1.____1-3 years 2.____4-6 years 3.____Over 6 years

(7) G. How many years have you served as the board president?

1.____1-3 years 2.____4-6 years 3.____Over 6 years

(8) H. Which of the following indicates most closely your highest level of training?

1.____High School

2.____Some college

3.____College graduate

4.____Other (Specify_____)

II. Current Practices

(18) N. In your building, who has primary responsibility for conducting teacher supervision/evaluation?
1.____Elementary principal
2.____Secondary principal
3.____Superintendent
4.____Do not know
5.____Other (Specify_____)

(19) O. Have you received any education or training in a supervision/evaluation process?
1.____Yes 2.____No

P. If YES to the above question, what was the nature of your education or training? (Check all that apply)
(20) a.____Graduate course(s)
(21) b.____Supervision/evaluation workshop
(22) c.____Convention topic
(23) d.____Personal reading
(24) e.____Other (Specify_____)

Q. Which of the following methods, if any, is your school using in the supervision/evaluation of teachers? (Check all that apply)
(25) a.____Self-evaluation by teachers
(26) b.____Checklist
(27) c.____Audio tape recording
(28) d.____Video tape recording
(29) e.____Student evaluations
(30) f.____Pre-observation conference
(31) g.____Observation
(32) h.____Post-observation conference
(33) i.____Other (Specify_____)
(34) j.____Do not know

(35) R. How often are teacher observations conducted?
1.____Never 2.____One/year 3.____Two/year 4.____Three/year
5.____Other (Specify_____) 6.____Do not know

(36) S. Do you believe teachers should know beforehand when an observation is going to be conducted?
1.____Yes 2.____No

(37) T. In your district are the supervision/evaluation visits of the administrator announced beforehand to the teachers?
1.____Always 2.____Sometimes 3.____Never 4.____Do not know

(38) U. If YES to the above, is a time agreed upon for the observation?
1.____Always 2.____Sometimes 3.____Never 4.____Do not know

(39) V. Are records kept on all observations completed?
1.____Yes 2.____No 3.____Do not know

W. If records are kept, indicate which of the following records are used: (Check all that apply)

(40) a.____Personal handwritten notes by the administrator
(41) b.____Formalized checklist
(42) c.____Narrative description of the observation
(43) d.____Lesson plan
(44) e.____Audio tape recording
(45) f.____Video tape recording
(46) g.____Student evaluations
(47) h.____Teacher self-evaluation
(48) i.____Other (Specify_____)
(49) j.____Do not know

(50) X. Do teachers regularly see (or hear) the records before they are placed in the file?
1.____Always 2.____Sometimes 3.____Never 4.____Do not know

Y. What are the usual reasons for conducting teacher supervision/evaluation? (Check all that apply)

(51) a.____Required by law
(52) b.____Required by the school board
(53) c.____Means for documenting in cases of dismissal
(54) d.____Something the administration feels <u>should</u> be done
(55) e.____Means for teacher improvement
(56) f.____Other (Specify_____)

(57) Z. Select the reason for conducting teacher supervision/evaluation <u>most significant to you</u>. Check only <u>one</u>.
1.____Required by law
2.____Required by the school board
3.____Means for documenting in cases of dismissal
4.____Something the administration feels <u>should</u> be done
5.____Means for teacher improvement
6.____Other (Specify_____)

AA. On a scale of 1 to 10, as you <u>perceive</u> it, how satisfied are <u>most of the teachers</u> with the supervision/evaluation process presently used in your district? Please circle the number on the scale.

(58-59)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Very dissatisfied			Somewhat dissatisfied		Satisfied		Well satisfied		Very well satisfied	

BB. How satisfied are <u>you</u> with the teacher supervision/evaluation process presently used in your district?

(60-61)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Very dissatisfied			Somewhat dissatisfied		Satisfied		Well satisfied		Very well satisfied	

III. Observations/Suggestions

1. Are there any particular problems in the supervision/evaluation of teachers which you see as being unique to small school systems? (Please explain.)

2. If you could change your present supervision/evaluation process in order to improve it, what would you do? Please write a brief paragraph explaining the constructive changes you would make.

APPENDIX C

COVER LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH DAKOTA

THE CENTER FOR TEACHING AND LEARNING
Box 8158, University Station
Grand Forks, North Dakota 58202

February 18, 1983

Greetings:

I am a doctoral candidate in Educational Administration at the University of North Dakota. As part of my degree program, I am conducting a statewide survey of the small schools in North Dakota. Your response to the survey questionnaire is needed to make this study complete. I ask your cooperation in completing the questionnaire and returning it in the stamped, self-addressed envelope as soon as possible.

The study deals with the perceptions of a sample of teachers, administrators, and school board presidents about the teacher supervision/evaluation programs currently being used in the small schools in our state. It is my intent to disseminate the results of the study through an appropriate publication in our state. The results could be useful to the administrators, teachers, and school board in your district in reviewing your local supervision/evaluation program.

Since the questionnaire insures anonymity, I need some way of being able to know who responded. Please use the enclosed stamped, self-addressed post card to indicate that you have responded. Since you are to mail the card separately, I will not know which questionnaire is yours, but I will know that you have responded.

I urge you to complete the questionnaire as soon as you receive it. It should take approximately fifteen minutes. Please return the completed questionnaire not later than March 4th.

I appreciate your willingness to cooperate in this study and thank you for your time and interest.

Sincerely,

Claudette J. Harring

Claudette J. Harring

Donald L. Piper

Donald L. Piper
Advisor/Dissertation Advisor

Enclosures

APPENDIX D

POSTCARD THAT PARTICIPANTS RETURNED TO THE RESEARCHER

Please sign your name below to indicate you have completed a questionnaire. Return the card to me. Thanks for your help.

Your Name_____

APPENDIX E

PARTICIPATING DISTRICTS

Participating Districts

Alexander
Anamoose
Aneta
Argusville
Beach
Belfield
Berthold
Binford
Bowbells
Bowdon
Butte
Buxton
Calvin
Carpio
Carson
Center
Chaffee
Colfax
Columbus
Crary
Donnybrook
Drake
Edinburg
Edmore
Esmond
Fairmount
Fessenden
Finley
Flasher
Fordville
Ft. Totten
Gackle
Galesburg
Glen Ullin
Glenburn
Golva
Goodrich
Granville
Grenora
Gwinner
Halliday
Hankinson
Hannaford
Hatton
Hazen
Hebron
Hoople
Hope
Hunter
Inkster

Kensal

Kulm

Lansford

Leeds

Lehr

Leonard

Lignite

Litchville

Maddock

Makoti

Mandaree

Marion

Max

McClusky

McVille

Medina

Michigan

Milnor

Milton

Minnewaukan

Minto

Monango

Montpelier

Munich

Neche

New England

New Leipzig

New Salem

Newburg

Northwood

Oriska

Page

Parshall

Pembina

Plaza

Powers Lake

Ray

Reeder

Regent

Rhame

Richardton

Riverdale

Rock Lake

Rogers

Rolette

Sawyer

Scranton

Sheldon

Sherwood

Sheyenne

Solen

Souris

South Heart

St. John

St. Thomas

Stanton

Starkweather

Steele

Strasburg

Streeter

Surrey

Sykeston

Tappen

Thompson

Tolna

Tower City

Trenton

Turtle Lake

Tuttle

Underwood

Upham

Verona

Warwick

Washburn

Westhope

Willow City

Wilton

Wimbledon

Wing

Woodworth

Zeeland

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